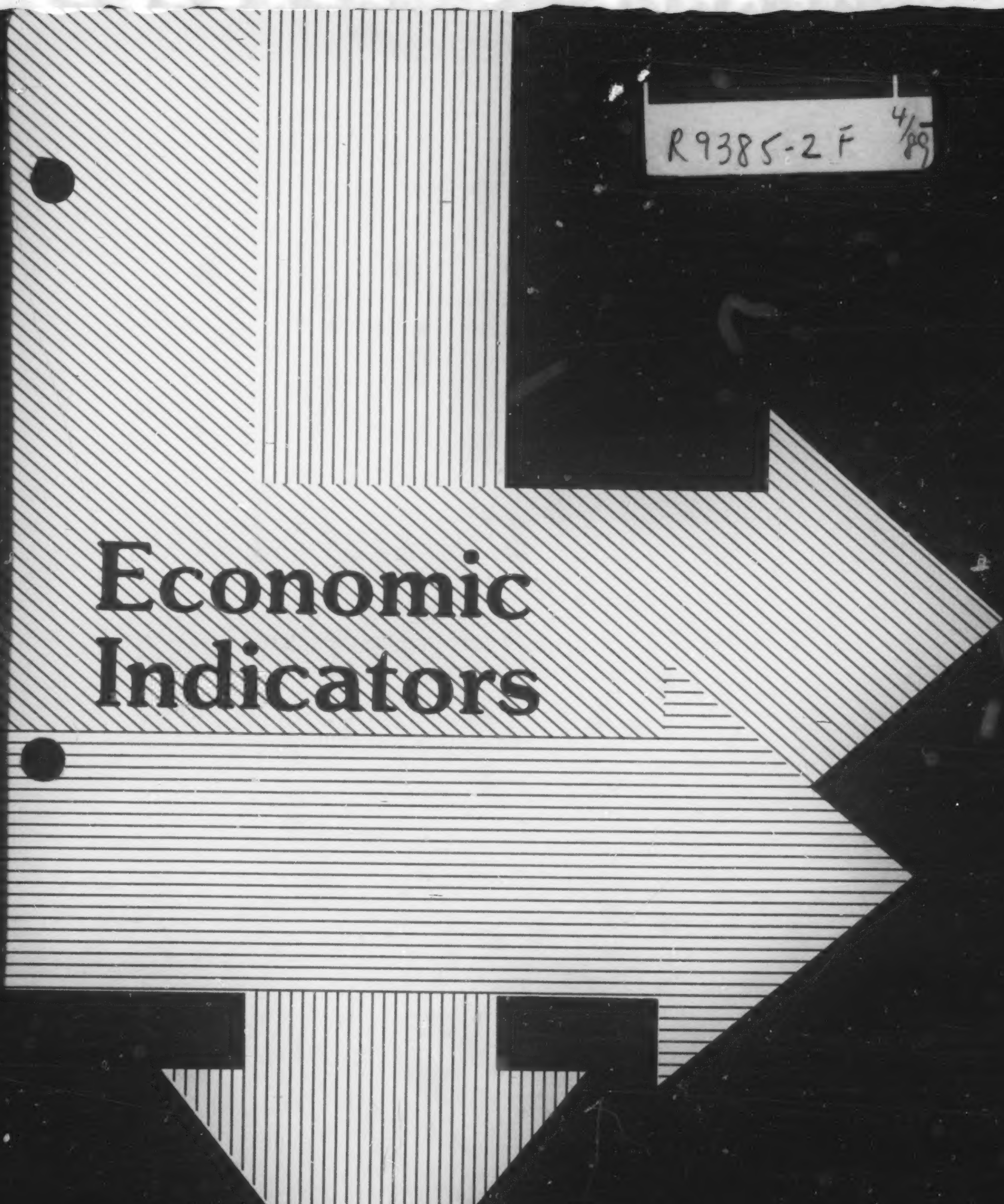
R9385-2 F 4/5/89



Economic Indicators

The publication of Economic Indicators
is made possible by a grant from
The Claude Worthington Benedum Foundation.

- Copyright 1988 -

by

West Virginia Research League, Inc.
405 Capitol Street - Suite 414
Charleston, West Virginia 25301

* * *

Permission to quote or reproduce data from this publication is granted when due acknowledgement is made.

* * *

Price: $25.00 Per Copy

* * *

PRINTED IN WEST VIRGINIA BY WEST VIRGINIANS

Dunbar Printing Company, Dunbar, W. Va.

PREFACE

Economic Indicators derives from an earlier handbook issued by the Research League in 1981, which presented quantitative data comparing important public policy functions in West Virginia and its sister states. The initial effort was largely motivated by the League's wish to meet its public education responsibilities by providing solid and useful information on selected policy activities in an easily understood format. This present publication is a major step toward better fulfilling that obligation. We believe that Economic Indicators constitutes a valuable interface between the public's need to know and data which better informs the citizenry about its government.

Economic Indicators is designed with a view to altering and expanding as West Virginia's economic makeup, and government response to it, undergoes changes in the years ahead. As topics require greater coverage and new areas deserve inclusion, the loose-leaf binder format will permit the League to issue replacement pages on the same subject or additional pages on new topics. Accordingly, Indicators is expected to be a reference source which encompasses truly useful, growing, "hard" data which will not become obsolete.

In the present edition, Economic Indicators is divided into sections focusing on the following subjects: social and economic factors; political features; government revenues and expenditures; public education; welfare; health; highways; public safety; and, federal aid to states. A brief introduction to each section is provided which focuses primarily on West Virginia's ranking in the United States and provides an initial evaluation of that position.

The core of Economic Indicators, is a series of columnar tables. These contain basic numerical indicators for the decennial years 1960, 1970, 1980 and for the most current year, which ranks West Virginia and all other states on our selected measures. It is possible to quickly determine changes and trends in West Virginia's ranking through this time-series data, and to reach other useful correlations by comparing shifts and ranking variations between tables for any states under consideration. The tabular format was chosen, as earlier alluded to, because it is very clear and understandable. One need not be a statistican or an economist to use this publication.

All data used in the publication are from official sources or from authoritative institutions or research organizations. Official U.S. Census data provided the main informational content, although the Research League has, in certain cases, made its own calculations. The League has not, however, undertaken to interpret or attempted to characterize the data or suggest its "meaning": the latter properly remains the task of the user.

While data used in the tables were taken from various government and private sources, in all possible cases the League combined state and local figures. This should provide a more comprehensive view of government operational costs in the states needed to meet a public policy objective in the jurisdiction.

The League's policy with regard to public education publications is to be fully responsive to demonstrated needs for information and reasonably responsive to developing needs for new data. In a timely way, replacement pages, or entirely new sections, will be issued to update the subjects contained in this, the initial edition. Based upon reports from users, and the League's own judgement, new topics on state policy activities which are significant to West Virginia (or which are believed will become so), will be issued by the Research League for inclusion in the original binder.

THE WEST VIRGINIA RESEARCH LEAGUE

The West Virginia Research League, incorporated in 1969, is a non-profit educational organization which conducts research into state government problems and provides factual studies and reports to public officials as an aid to improving the governmental process.

The Research League's role is to serve the public interest through its independent analysis of serious state problems. The League brings its findings to the attention of the decision-makers in government without any obligation to them. No part of the League's activities involve attempting to directly influence legislation.

Under the terms of its Charter, the League generally undertakes studies for governmental departments and legislative committees upon their request. Completed studies are customarily released to the public and to the news media by the official agency which requested them and these reports then may be obtained from the WVRL.

The Research League reserves the right, however, to initiate reports on issues of public concern and also to publish educational information such as that contained in the Statistical Handbook, and in this Economic Indicators, in further fulfillment of its public education responsibility.

In sum, the primary functions of the West Virginia Research League are:

- To research, study and analyze public issues of significance to West Virginia; to compile and publish its findings in a clear, objective, and non-partisan form; and, to provide its reports to the departments and agencies of the government of West Virginia;

- To cooperate with public officials in working for the adoption of improved public administration systems and procedures in West Virginia government;

- To be a fact-finding organization whose activities serve to broaden the channels of credible communication, and thus enhance the maintenance of responsible relationships between those who govern and those who are governed; and, to serve materially to advance West Virginia's economic and social development.

The League's research programs and public activities are made possible by the contributions of its members, which include a representative cross-section of West Virginia business firms, individuals, and foundations. Organizations, private foundations and individuals subscribing to the principles summarized above are cordially invited to inquire about League membership. Contributions in support of the Research League's programs are deductible for federal income tax purposes as educational donations.

Economic Indicators

Project Staff

Sarah F. Roach

Clifford G. Lantz

Patrick J. Lamb

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables	Page
Social and Economic Characteristics	1.1
Political and Governmental Features	2.1
Revenue and Expenditures	3.1
Education	4.1
Public Welfare	5.1
Health and Hospitals	6.1
Highways	7.1
Public Safety	8.1
Federal Aid to States	9.1

LIST OF TABLES

Social and Economic Characteristics

Table		Page
1	Population: 1960, 1970, 1980, 1986 and Percent Change, 1980 to 1987	1.1
2	Percent Black of Total Population: 1960, 1970 and 1980	1.2
3	Percent of Population Completing Four Years High School: 1960, 1970, 1980	1.3
4	Per Capita Personal Income: 1960, 1970, 1980, 1987	1.4
5	Percent Persons Below Poverty Level: 1959, 1969, 1979, 1982	1.5
6	Percent Metropolitan Area Population, By State: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986	1.6
7	Pollution Abatement Capital Expenditures as Compared to Value of Industrial Shipments: 1973, 1978 and 1983	1.7
8	Pollution Abatement Capital Expenditures, Per Capita: 1973, 1979 and 1983	1.8
9	Per Capita Value Added By Manufacture: 1960, 1971, 1980, 1985	1.9
10	Average Weekly Earnings of Production Workers on Manufacturing Payrolls, By State: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986	1.10
11	Union Membership As A Percent of Total Non-Agricultural Employment, By State: 1964, 1970, 1980, 1982	1.11
12	Work Stoppages: 1960, 1970 and 1981	1.12
13	Non-Agricultural Unemployment, By State: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986	1.13
14	Non-Agricultural Employment, By State: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986	1.14

Table Page

15 Full-Time Equivalent State and Local Non-Educational Employees, Per 10,000 Inhabitants: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 1.15

16 Average Monthly Earnings of Full-Time State and Local Government Employees, By State: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 1.16

17 Number of Veterans, Per Capita, By State: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 1.17

18 Veterans Benefits: Compensation and Pensions, By State: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 1.18

Political and Governmental Features

1 Percent of Voting-Age Population Casting Votes for President: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1984 2.1

2 The Governor's Office: 1988 2.2

3 State Legislatures: Total Membership and Percentage Democratic and Republican: 1987 2.3

4 State Legislative Apportionment: Senate and House 2.4

5 Method of Appointment and Term of Office For State Courts of Last Resort 2.5

Revenue and Expenditures

1 State and Local General Revenue Per Capita: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 3.1

2 Per Capita State and Local General Revenue From Own Sources: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 3.2

3 State and Local General Revenue From Own Sources Per $1,000 of Personal Income: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 3.3

Table Page

4 Per Capita State and Local Taxes: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 3.4

5 State and Local Tax Effort Index: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 3.5

6 Revenue From State Income Tax as Percent of Total State Taxes: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 3.6

7 Percent of State and Local General Revenue From Federal Government: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 3.7

8 Per Capita State and Local Direct General Expenditures: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 3.8

9 State and Local Direct General Expenditures Per $1,000 Personal Income: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 3.9

10 Total State and Local Debt Per Capita: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 3.10

Education

1 Expenditure Per Pupil for Public Elementary and Secondary Schools: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1987 4.1

2 Per Capita Public Elementary and Secondary School Expenditures: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 4.2

3 Public Elementary and Secondary School Expenditures Per $1,000 Personal Income: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 4.3

4 Elementary and Secondary School Expenditures As Percent of Total State and Local Spending: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 4.4

5 Average Annual Salaries For Classroom Teachers, Public Elementary and Secondary Schools: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1987 4.5

Table Page

6 Pupil-Teachers Ratio Public Elementary and Secondary Schools: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 4.6

7 Per Capita General Expenditures For State Institutions of Higher Education: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 4.7

8 Direct General Expenditures of State and Local Governments for Higher Education Per Student: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 4.8

9 State and Local Higher Education Spending Per $1,000 Personal Income: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 4.9

10 Higher Education Expenditures As Percent of Total State and Local Spending: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 4.10

11 Number of Institutions of Higher Education: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 4.11

12 Total Enrollment in Institutions of Higher Education, By State: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 4.12

13 Earned Degrees Conferred by Institutions of Higher Education, By State: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1984 4.13

14 Full-Time Equivalent State and Local Employees In Education Per 10,000 Inhabitants: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 4.14

Public Welfare

1 Per Capita State and Local Public Welfare Expenditures: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 5.1

2 State and Local Public Welfare Spending Per $1,000 Personal Income: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 5.2

Table Page

3 Public Welfare Expenditures as Percent of Total State and Local Spending: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 5.3

4 Percent Public Assistance Recipients of Total Population: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 5.4

5 Average Monthly Payment for Aid to Families With Dependent Children (Per Recipient): 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 5.5

6 Average Monthly Payment for Aid to Aged: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 5.6

7 Average Monthly Payment for Aid to Disabled 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 5.7

8 Average Monthly Payment For Aid to the Blind: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 5.8

9 Food Stamp Program - Average Monthly Benefit Per Recipient: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 5.9

10 Average Weekly Unemployment Benefits: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 5.10

11 Worker's Compensation Maximum Benefits Per Week for Temporary/Total Disability: 1960, 1969, 1979, 1988 5.11

Health and Hospitals

1 Per Capita State and Local Expenditures for Health and Hospitals: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1988 6.1

2 State and Local Expenditures for Health and Hospitals Per $1,000 Personal Income: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 6.2

3 Health and Hospital Expenditures As a Percent of Total State and Local Spending: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 6.3

Table Page

4 Infant Death Rates, White: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 6.4

5 Infant Death Rates, Non-White: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 6.5

6 Total Number of Hospital Facilities: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 6.6

7 Total Number of Hospital Beds Per 1,000: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 6.7

8 Average Daily Hospital Room Charges: 1976, 1980 and 1987 6.8

Highways

1 Per Capita State and Local Highway Expenditures: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 7.1

2 State and Local Highway Expenditures Per $1,000 Personal Income: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 7.2

3 Highway Expenditures As Percent of Total State and Local Spending: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 7.3

4 Total Highway Mileage: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 7.4

5 Motor Vehicle Registration: By State: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 7.5

6 Death From Motor Vehicle Accidents Per 100,000 Population, By State: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 7.6

Public Safety

1 Per Capita State and Local Expenditures For Police Protection: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 8.1

Table | Page

2 State and Local Expenditures for Police Per $1,000 of Personal Income: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 8.2

3 Police Expenditures as Percent of Total State and Local Spending: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 8.3

4 Total Crime Rate Per 100,000 Population: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 8.4

5 Property Crime Rate Per 100,000 Population: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 8.5

6 Violent Crime Rate Per 100,000 Population: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 8.6

7 Inmates Per 100,000 Population In State Correctional Facilities: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 8.7

Federal Aid to States

1 Federal Revenue to State and Local Governments, General Revenue Funds, Per Capita: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 9.1

2 Total Federal Aid to State and Local Governments, Per Capita: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 9.2

3 Federal Aid to State and Local Governments For Education, Per Capita: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986 9.3

4 Federal Aid to State and Local Governments for Public Assistance, Per Capita: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985 9.4

5 Per Capita Federal Grants to State and Local Governments for Highway Trust Fund, By State: 1970, 1980 and 1986 9.5

Table		Page
6	Federal Aid to State and Local Governments for General Revenue Sharings, Per Capita: 1974, 1980, 1986	9.6

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS

The information provided in this section includes: total population, percent black population, educational attainment, income measures, poverty levels, urbanization, manufacturing payrolls, pollution abatement expenditures, union membership, work stoppages, employment and unemployment figures, government employee earnings, number of veterans, and the compensation and pension benefits of veterans.

A brief descriptive statement about the tables is given below. Beyond this information, it is left to the reader to make comparisons or to identify trends.

Table 1 reports total population and the percent change between 1980 and 1987 in population. California became the most populous state in the country in 1970, now well ahead of New York and Texas. Southern and western states have had the largest increases in population since 1980. Florida moved up from tenth place in 1960 to fourth in 1987. During the same period Texas moved up from sixth to third place.

West Virginia has suffered a loss in population every year since 1980. However, the State's ranking, thirty-fourth, remains unchanged. The 1980 population count was 1,950 thousand; in 1987 it dropped to 1,897 thousand.

Percentage figures on the proportion of blacks to the total population are listed in Table 2. This percentage in the southern states is high but has dropped steadily since 1960. West Virginia's black population also dropped during the same period, from 4.8 percent and a rank of twenty-fifth in 1960, to 3.2 percent and a rank of thirty-third in 1980. Unfortunately, 1980 is the latest year this data is available, by State, from the U.S. Bureau of the Census.

Table 3 provides three decennial percentage rankings of proportions of the population, aged 25 years and over, which have completed at least four years of high school. The national average for this measure in 1980 was 66.5 percent. In 1980, the top fifteen states with the highest rank were located west of the Mississippi River; the states with the lowest percentage of graduates are from the south. West Virginia, on a percentage basis improved from 1970 to 1980 by 14.4 percent, but dropped in rank from forty-third to forty-fifth in the country. Alaska became the highest ranked state in 1980. Kentucky is the lowest ranked state. At present, reliable data from authoritative sources is available only for the decennial years 1960, 1970 and 1980.

Personal income per capita is shown in Table 4. Connecticut has replaced Alaska as the state with the highest per capita personal income. Per capita income in Connecticut was $21,266 in 1987, 37 percent above the national average of $15,481. The lowest ranked state is Mississippi, whose residents earned an average of $10,292. West Virginia's per capita personal income average was $11,020 in 1987, over 28 percent below the national average. The State's rank in this measure dropped from forty-first in 1980 to forty-ninth in 1987. New England and the Middle Atlantic states showed the largest gains in per capita personal income since 1980. Per capita personal income is here defined as the total personal income divided by the reported population for the period.

Table 5 presents the percentage of persons below the federal governments' poverty level standard. The poverty data used includes money income only, before any taxes or deductions, and does not include the value of noncash benefits such as food stamps, school lunches, public housing, Medicaid, or Medicare. Annual adjustments in the poverty levels are made to account for changes in the Consumer Price Index. The national average poverty rate rose between the years 1980 and 1982 from 12.4 percent to 15.0 percent. The 1982 poverty threshold was $9,862 for a family of four. West Virginia ranked eleventh in 1979 with 15.0 percent but rose in 1982 to a reported 25.0 percent of its population below the poverty level. Nevada ranked fiftieth with only 7.8 percent of its population below the poverty level. 1982 is the latest year acceptable data was available by state.

Table 6 shows the percent of state populations living in metropolitan areas. In 1986 New Jersey was the most metropolitan of the states, followed by California and Maryland. In this measure, West Virginia ranked forty-third.

Table 7 reports each state's capital expenditures for pollution abatement as compared to the value of industrial shipments. In 1983, West Virginia ranked second behind Louisiana when compared with all states. Several states withheld figures for this measure to avoid disclosure of information that might identify a specific organization.

Per capita pollution abatement capital expenditures by manufactures are compared in Table 8. Pollution abatement means the reduction or elimination of pollutants emitted from an establishment and includes prevention, treatment, and recycling activities. West Virginia was ranked sixth in 1983.

Table 9 reflects the per capita value added by manufacture for 1960, 1971, 1980 and 1985. Value added by manufacture is a recognized way to measure the degree of industrial activity in a state. It represents the difference between the purchase price of raw materials, finished parts, and the sale price of the final products. Connecticut ranked first in this measure in 1985, as it did in 1980, and Wyoming ranked fiftieth in 1985. West Virginia's rank declined from a high twentieth in 1960 to twenty-second in 1971; then, to thirty-fourth in 1980; and to forty-first in 1985.

Table 10 tabulates the average weekly earnings of production workers on manufacturing payrolls. The national average was $389 in 1986, an increase of $92 from 1980. West Virginia's ranking in 1986 was thirteenth, tied with California and Iowa, with an average weekly earning of $418. This is $29 more than the national average.

Union membership as a percent of total non-agricultural employment, for all states is found in Table 11. Data in this table covers all known labor organizations; the table excludes unemployed members. The average union membership nationwide has declined steadily since 1964 when the average was 29.5 percent, to 21.9 percent in 1982. West Virginia's rank in this measure also dropped from first in 1964 and 1970, to sixth place, 28.9 percent, in 1982.

Table 12 reports work stoppages, by state, including private and public employees. Work stoppages include all strike and lockouts, identified as such by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, which last for at least one full day. The latest official data available was 1981. In 1981, West Virginia, ranked tenth. In that same year, Pennsylvania had the highest number of work stoppages in the country.

Table 13 lists unemployment (non-agricultural) by state. West Virginia's ranking in this measure has remained about the same, ranging from thirtieth in 1970, thirty-first in 1980 and thirty-second in 1986. Unemployed persons comprise all civilians who had no employment during the referenced week, who made an effort to find a job within the previous four weeks and who were available for work during that week.

Table 14 shows employment (non-agricultural) by state. Employed civilians comprise all civilians who did any work for pay or profit. The figures also include members of the Armed Forces stationed in the United States. The U.S. total non-agricultural employment in 1986 was 99.6 million. West Virginia dropped from a ranking of thirty-fourth in 1980 to thirty-sixth in 1986. The total number of civilians employed also dropped from 630 thousand in 1980 to 597 thousand in 1986.

Table 15 indicates the full-time equivalent employment in non-educational jobs per 10,000 inhabitants. Obvious comparisons can be made between this information and the data provided in Table 4.14. West Virginia's rank in 1980 and 1986 was forty-fourth, but the number of full-time non-educational employees dropped by ten percent between those years. The number of employees per 10,000 inhabitants in West Virginia was 210.8 in 1986, over seventeen percent below the national average (247.6).

Table 16 provides the average monthly earnings of full-time state and local government employees. Figures in this table are from the sample month of October. The national average rose from $1,373 in 1980 to $1,905 in 1986. The average earnings of full-time state and local government employees in West Virginia was $1,606 in October, 1986. West Virginia ranked forty-sixth in 1986, up from forty-ninth in 1980. Alaska is the highest ranked state, followed by California. Mississippi was the lowest in 1980 and 1986.

Table 17 shows the total number of veterans per capita by state. The veteran population per capita in the U.S. averaged 11.6 in 1985. West Virginia's rank in 1985 was twenty-eighth, higher than 1980, when the state ranked thirty-first, tied with Arkansas. This ranking is considerably lower than 1960's rank of second, with 18.0 veterans per capita living in the state.

The last table (18) in this section shows compensation and pension benefits paid to veterans by the federal government. Compensation and pension benefits, administered by the Veterans Administration fall into five categories: disability compensation; DIC (dependency and indemnity compensation) and death compensation; disability pension; death pension; and, burial allowances. The cost of compensation and pension benefits have risen considerably since 1970. The national total paid to veterans and their survivors in 1985 was $13.6 billion, while in 1970 it was $5.1 billion. West Virginia ranked twenty-ninth in 1985 with its veterans receiving $163 million in compensation and pension benefits.

TABLE 1

POPULATION: 1960, 1970, 1980, 1987
AND PERCENT CHANGE, 1980 to 1987

Rank	State	1960 (000)	State	1970 (000)	State	1980 (000)	State	1987 (000)	Percent Increase Decrease	Rank
	U.S. Total	179,323	U.S. Total	203,212	U.S. Total	226,504	U.S. Total	243,400	7.4%	
1	New York	16,782	California	19,953	California	23,668	California	27,663	16.9%	1
2	California	15,717	New York	18,237	New York	17,558	New York	17,825	1.5%	2
3	Pennsylvania	11,319	Pennsylvania	11,794	Texas	14,229	Texas	16,789	18.0%	3
4	Illinois	10,081	Texas	11,197	Pennsylvania	11,864	Florida	12,023	23.4%	4
5	Ohio	9,706	Illinois	11,114	Illinois	11,427	Pennsylvania	11,936	0.6%	5
6	Texas	9,580	Ohio	10,652	Ohio	10,798	Illinois	11,553	1.4%	6
7	Michigan	7,823	Michigan	8,875	Florida	9,746	Ohio	10,784	-0.1%	7
8	New Jersey	6,067	New Jersey	7,168	Michigan	9,262	Michigan	9,200	-0.7%	8
9	Massachusetts	5,149	Florida	6,789	New Jersey	7,365	New Jersey	7,672	4.2%	9
10	Florida	4,952	Massachusetts	5,689	North Carolina	5,882	North Carolina	6,413	9.0%	10
11	Indiana	4,662	Indiana	5,194	Massachusetts	5,737	Georgia	6,222	13.9%	11
12	North Carolina	4,556	North Carolina	5,082	Indiana	5,490	Virginia	5,904	10.4%	12
13	Missouri	4,320	Missouri	4,677	Georgia	5,463	Massachusetts	5,855	2.1%	13
14	Virginia	3,967	Virginia	4,648	Virginia	5,347	Indiana	5,531	0.7%	14
15	Wisconsin	3,952	Georgia	4,590	Missouri	4,917	Missouri	5,103	3.8%	15
16	Georgia	3,943	Wisconsin	4,418	Wisconsin	4,706	Tennessee	4,855	5.7%	16
17	Tennessee	3,567	Tennessee	3,924	Tennessee	4,591	Wisconsin	4,807	2.1%	17
18	Minnesota	3,414	Maryland	3,922	Maryland	4,217	Washington	4,538	9.8%	18
19	Alabama	3,267	Minnesota	3,805	Louisiana	4,206	Maryland	4,535	7.5%	19
20	Louisiana	3,257	Louisiana	3,641	Washington	4,132	Louisiana	4,461	6.1%	20
21	Maryland	3,101	Alabama	3,444	Minnesota	4,076	Minnesota	4,246	4.2%	21
22	Kentucky	3,038	Washington	3,409	Alabama	3,894	Alabama	4,083	4.9%	22
23	Washington	2,853	Kentucky	3,219	Kentucky	3,661	Kentucky	3,727	1.8%	23
24	Iowa	2,758	Connecticut	3,032	South Carolina	3,122	South Carolina	3,425	9.7%	24
25	Connecticut	2,535	Iowa	2,824	Connecticut	3,108	Arizona	3,386	24.6%	25
26	South Carolina	2,383	South Carolina	2,591	Oklahoma	3,025	Colorado	3,296	14.1%	26
27	Oklahoma	2,328	Oklahoma	2,559	Iowa	2,914	Oklahoma	32,272	8.2%	27
28	Kansas	2,179	Kansas	2,247	Colorado	2,890	Connecticut	3,211	3.3%	28
29	Mississippi	2,178	Mississippi	2,217	Arizona	2,718	Iowa	2,834	-2.7%	29
30	WEST VIRGINIA	1,860	Colorado	2,207	Oregon	2,633	Oregon	2,724	3.4%	30
31	Arkansas	1,786	Oregon	2,091	Mississippi	2,521	Mississippi	2,625	4.1%	31
32	Oregon	1,769	Arkansas	1,923	Kansas	2,364	Kansas	2,476	4.7%	32
33	Colorado	1,754	Arizona	1,771	Arkansas	2,286	Arkansas	2,388	4.5%	33
34	Nebraska	1,411	WEST VIRGINIA	1,744	WEST VIRGINIA	1,950	WEST VIRGINIA	1,897	-2.7%	34
35	Arizona	1,302	Nebraska	1,483	Nebraska	1,570	Utah	1,680	15.0%	35
36	Maine	969	Utah	1,059	Utah	1,461	Nebraska	1,594	1.6%	36
37	New Mexico	951	New Mexico	1,016	New Mexico	1,303	New Mexico	1,500	15.1%	37
38	Utah	891	Maine	992	Maine	1,125	Maine	1,187	5.5%	38
39	Rhode Island	859	Rhode Island	947	Hawaii	965	Hawaii	1,083	12.2%	39
40	South Dakota	681	Hawaii	769	Rhode Island	947	New Hampshire	1,057	14.8%	40
41	Montana	675	New Hampshire	738	Idaho	944	Nevada	1,007	25.[illegible]	41
42	Idaho	667	Idaho	713	New Hampshire	921	Idaho	998	5.8%	42
43	Hawaii	633	Montana	694	Nevada	800	Rhode Island	986	4.1%	43
44	North Dakota	632	South Dakota	666	Montana	787	Montana	809	2.9%	44
45	New Hampshire	607	North Dakota	618	South Dakota	691	South Dakota	709	2.7%	45
46	Delaware	446	Delaware	548	North Dakota	653	North Dakota	672	2.9%	46
47	Vermont	390	Nevada	489	Delaware	594	Delaware	644	8.3%	47
48	Wyoming	330	Vermont	444	Vermont	511	Vermont	548	7.2%	48
49	Nevada	285	Wyoming	332	Wyoming	470	Alaska	525	30.7%	49
50	Alaska	226	Alaska	300	Alaska	402	Wyoming	490	4.4%	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962 and 1972, U.S. Bureau of the Census.
DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE NEWS, 1981 And 1988, U.S. Bureau of the Census.

(1) Total includes the District of Columbia.

Table 2

PERCENT BLACK OF TOTAL POPULATION
1960, 1970 and 1980

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	10.5%	U.S. Avg.	11.1%	U.S. Avg.	11.5%	
1	Mississippi	42.0%	Mississippi	36.8%	Mississippi	33.7%	1
2	South Carolina	34.8%	South Carolina	30.5%	South Carolina	30.1%	2
3	Louisiana	31.9%	Louisiana	29.8%	Louisiana	27.7%	3
4	Alabama	30.0%	Alabama	26.2%	Georgia	25.4%	4
5	Georgia	28.5%	Georgia	25.9%	Alabama	23.7%	5
6	North Carolina	24.5%	North Carolina	22.2%	Maryland	23.0%	6
7	Arkansas	21.8%	Virginia	18.5%	North Carolina	21.2%	7
8	Virginia	20.6%	Arkansas	18.3%	Virginia	18.6%	8
9	Florida	17.8%	Maryland	17.8%	Arkansas	15.4%	9
10	Maryland	16.7%	Tennessee	15.8%	Delaware	15.3%	10
11	Tennessee	16.5%	Florida	15.3%	New York	14.7%	11
12	Delaware	13.6%	Delaware	14.3%	Tennessee	14.6%	12
13	Texas	12.4%	Illinois	12.6%	Illinois	14.2%	13
14	Illinois	10.3%	Texas	12.5%	Florida	13.4%	14
15	Michigan	9.2%	New York	11.9%	New Jersey	13.2%	15
16	Missouri	9.0%	Michigan	11.2%	Michigan	12.4%	16
17	New Jersey	8.5%	New Jersey	10.8%	Texas	11.5%	17
18	New York	8.4%	Missouri	10.3%	Missouri	10.8%	18
19	Ohio	8.1%	Ohio	9.1%	Ohio -	10.0%	19
20	Pennsylvania	7.5%	Pennsylvania	8.6%	Pennsylvania	9.0%	20
21	Kentucky	7.1%	Kentucky	7.2%	California	7.6%	21
22	Oklahoma	6.6%	California	7.0%	Indiana	7.5%	22
23	Indiana	5.8%	Indiana	6.9%	Kentucky	7.0%	23
24	California	5.6%	Oklahoma	6.7%	Oklahoma	7.0%	
25	WEST VIRGINIA	4.8%	Connecticut	6.0%	Connecticut	6.1%	25
26	Nevada	4.7%	Nevada	5.7%	Nevada	5.4%	26
27	Kansas	4.2%	Kansas	4.8%	Kansas	4.6%	27 -
	Connecticut	4.2%	WEST VIRGINIA	3.9%	Massachusetts	4.4%	28
29	Arizona	3.3%	Massachusetts	3.1%	Colorado -	3.6%	29
30	Alaska	3.0%	Arizona	3.0%	Rhode Island	3.5%	30
31	Colorado	2.3%	Colorado	3.0%	Nebraska	3.3%	31
32	Massachusetts	2.2%	Alaska	3.0%	Wisconsin	3.3%	
33	Nebraska	2.1%	Wisconsin	2.9%	WEST VIRGINIA	3.2%	33
	Rhode Island	2.1%	Nebraska	2.7%	Arizona	2.9%	34
35	Wisconsin	1.9%	Rhode Island	2.7%	Washington	2.1%	35
36	New Mexico	1.8%	Washington	2.1%	Iowa	1.7%	36
37	Washington	1.7%	New Mexico	1.9%	Oregon	1.3%	37
38	Oregon	1.0%	Oregon	1.3%	Minnesota	1.1%	38
39	Iowa	0.9%	Iowa	1.2%	Alaska	*	39
40	Hawaii	0.8%	Hawaii	1.0%	Hawaii	*	40
41	Wyoming	0.7%	Minnesota	0.9%	Idaho	*	41
	Minnesota	0.7%	Wyoming	0.8%	Maine	*	42
43	Utah	0.5%	Utah	0.6%	Montana	*	43
44	New Hampshire	0.3%	North Dakota	0.4%	New Hampshire	*	44
	Maine	0.3%	Idaho	0.3%	New Mexico	*	45
46	Idaho	0.2%	Montana	0.3%	North Dakota	*	46
	Montana	0.2%	New Hampshire	0.3%	South Dakota	*	47
	South Dakota	0.2%	Maine	0.3%	Utah	*	48
49	North Dakota	0.1%	South Dakota	0.3%	Vermont	*	49
50	Vermont	0.1%	Vermont	0.2%	Wyoming	*	50

Source: ILLUSTRATIVE PROJECTIONS OF STATE POPULATIONS, BY AGE, RACE, AND SEX, 1975 TO 2000, Current Population Reports, Bureau of the Census.
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE NEWS, January, 1981, Bureau of the Census.

* Estimated population less than 25,000.

Table 3

PERCENT OF POPULATION COMPLETING FOUR YEARS HIGH SCHOOL
1960, 1970 and 1980*

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	41.1%	U.S. Avg.	52.3%	U.S. Avg.	66.5%	
1	Utah	55.9%	Utah	67.3%	Alaska	82.5%	1
2	Alaska	54.3%	Alaska	66.7%	Utah	80.0%	2
3	Nevada	53.1%	Nevada	65.2%	Colorado	78.6%	3
4	Colorado	52.0%	Colorado	63.9%	Wyoming	77.9%	4
5	Wyoming	51.7%	Washington	63.5%	Washington	77.6%	5
6	Washington	51.6%	Wyoming	62.9%	Oregon	75.6%	6
7	California	51.5%	California	62.6%	Nevada	75.5%	7
8	Oregon	48.4%	Hawaii	61.9%	Montana	74.4%	8
9	Kansas	48.2%	Oregon	60.0%	Hawaii	73.8%	9
	Idaho	48.2%	Kansas	59.9%	Idaho	73.7%	10
11	Nebraska	47.8%	Idaho	59.5%	California	73.5%	11
	Montana	47.8%	Nebraska	59.3%	Nebraska	73.4%	12
13	Massachusetts	47.0%	Montana	59.2%	Kansas	73.3%	13
14	Iowa	46.3%	Iowa	59.0%	Minnesota	73.1%	14
	Hawaii	46.3%	Massachusetts	58.5%	Arizona	72.4%	15
16	Arizona	45.7%	Arizona	58.1%	New Hampshire	72.3%	16
17	New Mexico	45.2%	New Hampshire	57.6%	Massachusetts	72.2%	17
18	Minnesota	43.9%	Minnesota	57.6%	Iowa	71.5%	18
19	Connecticut	43.8%	Vermont	57.1%	Vermont	71.0%	19
20	Maine	43.3%	Connecticut	56.0%	Connecticut	70.3%	20
21	New Hampshire	43.2%	New Mexico	55.2%	Wisconsin	69.6%	21
22	Delaware	43.1%	Maine	54.7%	New Mexico	68.9%	22
23	Vermont	42.7%	Delaware	54.6%	Maine	68.7%	23
24	Florida	42.6%	Wisconsin	54.5%	Delaware	68.6%	24
25	South Dakota	42.2%	South Dakota	53.3%	Michigan	68.0%	25
26	Ohio	42.0%	Ohio	53.2%	South Dakota	67.9%	26
27	Indiana	41.8%	Indiana	52.9%	Maryland	67.4%	27
28	Wisconsin	41.5%	Michigan	52.8%	New Jersey	67.4%	
29	New York	40.9%	New York	52.7%	Ohio	67.0%	29
	Michigan	40.9%	Illinois	52.6%	Florida	66.7%	30
31	New Jersey	40.7%	Florida	52.6%	Illinois	66.5%	31
32	Oklahoma	40.5%	New Jersey	52.5%	Indiana	66.4%	32
33	Illinois	40.4%	Maryland	52.3%	North Dakota	66.4%	
34	Maryland	40.0%	Oklahoma	51.6%	New York	66.3%	34
35	North Dakota	38.9%	North Dakota	50.3%	Oklahoma	66.0%	35
	Texas	38.9%	Pennsylvania	50.2%	Pennsylvania	64.7%	36
37	Pennsylvania	38.1%	Missouri	48.8%	Missouri	63.5%	37
38	Virginia	37.9%	Virginia	47.8%	Texas	62.6%	38
39	Missouri	36.6%	Texas	47.4%	Virginia	62.4%	39
40	Rhode Island	35.1%	Rhode Island	46.4%	Rhode Island	61.1%	40
41	North Carolina	32.3%	Louisiana	42.2%	Louisiana	57.7%	41
	Louisiana	32.3%	Tennessee	41.8%	Alabama	56.5%	42
43	Georgia	32.0%	WEST VIRGINIA	41.6%	Georgia	56.4%	43
44	WEST VIRGINIA	30.5%	Alabama	41.3%	Tennessee	56.2%	44
45	South Carolina	30.4%	Mississippi	41.0%	WEST VIRGINIA	56.0%	45
	Tennessee	30.4%	Georgia	40.6%	Mississippi	54.8%	46
47	Alabama	30.3%	Arkansas	39.9%	North Carolina	54.8%	
48	Mississippi	29.7%	North Carolina	38.5%	Arkansas	55.5%	48
49	Arkansas	28.8%	Kentucky	38.5%	South Carolina	53.7%	49
50	Kentucky	27.6%	South Carolina	37.8%	Kentucky	53.1%	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, 1973 and 1979, U.S. Bureau of the Census.
DIGEST OF EDUCATION STATISTICS, 1987, Center for Education Statistics.

* At present, reliable data is available only for the decennial years 1960, 1970 and 1980.

Note: Percent of population age 25 years and older.

TABLE 4

PER CAPITA PERSONAL INCOME
1960, 1970, 1980, 1987

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1987	Rank
	U.S. Average	$2,222	U.S. Average	$3,966	U.S.Average	$9,458	U.S. Average	$15,481	
1	Connecticut	$2,838	Connecticut	$4,917	Alaska	$12,406	Connecticut	$21,266	1
2	Alaska	$2,809	New York	$4,712	Connecticut	$11,445	New Jersey	$20,352	2
3	Nevada	$2,799	New Jersey	$4,701	California	$10,856	Massachusetts	$19,142	3
4	Delaware	$2,785	Alaska	$4,644	New Jersey	$10,755	Alaska	$18,230	4
5	New York	$2,740	Hawaii	$4,623	Wyoming	$10,692	Maryland	$18,124	5
6	New Jersey	$2,727	Nevada	$4,563	Illinois	$10,658	New York	$18,004	6
7	California	$2,706	Delaware	$4,524	Nevada	$10,458	California	$17,821	7
8	Illinois	$2,646	Illinois	$4,507	Washington	$10,363	New Hampshire	$17,529	8
9	Massachusetts	$2,461	California	$4,493	Maryland	$10,322	Delaware	$16,696	9
10	Hawaii	$2,368	Massachusetts	$4,340	Delaware	$10,195	Virginia	$16,517	10
11	Washington	$2,360	Maryland	$4,309	New York	$10,143	Illinois	$16,442	11
12	Michigan	$2,357	Michigan	$4,180	Massachusetts	$9,992	Nevada	$16,366	12
13	Ohio	$2,345	Washington	$4,053	Colorado	$9,964	Minnesota	$15,927	13
14	Maryland	$2,341	Ohio	$4,020	Kansas	$9,958	Hawaii	$15,679	14
15	Pennsylvania	$2,269	Pennsylvania	$3,971	Michigan	$9,847	Washington	$15,599	15
16	Colorado	$2,252	Rhode Island	$3,959	Hawaii	$9,787	Colorado	$15,584	16
17	Wyoming	$2,247	Minnesota	$3,859	Minnesota	$9,519	Florida	$15,584	
18	Oregon	$2,229	Colorado	$3,855	Texas	$9,513	Rhode Island	$15,555	18
19	Rhode Island	$2,217	Kansas	$3,853	Virginia	$9,435	Michigan	$15,393	19
20	Wisconsin	$2,188	Wyoming	$3,815	Oregon	$9,400	Pennsylvania	$15,212	20
21	Indiana	$2,178	Wisconsin	$3,812	Ohio	$9,398	Kansas	$15,126	21
22	Kansas	$2,160	Nebraska	$3,789	Pennsylvania	$9,294	Wisconsin	$14,742	22
23	New Hampshire	$2,135	Missouri	$3,781	Wisconsin	$9,254	Missouri	$14,687	23
24	Missouri	$2,112	Indiana	$3,772	Rhode Island	$9,250	Ohio	$14,612	24
25	Nebraska	$2,110	Iowa	$3,751	Iowa	$9,178	Nebraska	$14,328	25
26	Minnesota	$2,075	Florida	$3,738	Oklahoma	$9,081	Arizona	$14,315	26
27	Montana	$2,035	New Hampshire	$3,737	Florida	$8,987	Vermont	$14,302	27
28	Arizona	$2,012	Oregon	$3,719	New Hampshire	$8,980	Georgia	$14,300	28
29	Iowa	$1,983	Virginia	$3,712	Indiana	$8,978	Iowa	$14,236	29
30	Utah	$1,979	Arizona	$3,665	Nebraska	$8,914	Oregon	$14,041	30
31	Florida	$1,947	Texas	$3,606	Missouri	$8,846	Maine	$13,954	31
32	Texas	$1,936	Montana	$3,500	Arizona	$8,649	Indiana	$13,914	32
33	Oklahoma	$1,876	Vermont	$3,468	North Dakota	$8,556	Texas	$13,866	33
34	Virginia	$1,864	Oklahoma	$3,387	Montana	$8,445	North Carolina	$13,314	34
35	Maine	$1,862	Georgia	$3,354	Louisiana	$8,282	North Dakota	$13,004	35
36	Idaho	$1,850	Maine	$3,302	Idaho	$8,126	Tennessee	$12,880	36
37	Vermont	$1,847	Idaho	$3,290	Georgia	$8,000	Wyoming	$12,709	37
38	New Mexico	$1,843	North Carolina	$3,252	New Mexico	$7,956	Oklahoma	$12,551	38
39	South Dakota	$1,784	Utah	$3,227	North Carolina	$7,852	South Dakota	$12,550	39
40	North Dakota	$1,704	South Dakota	$3,123	Vermont	$7,839	Montana	$12,337	40
41	Louisiana	$1,668	Tennessee	$3,119	WEST VIRGINIA	$7,831	Kentucky	$12,059	41
42	Georgia	$1,651	Kentucky	$3,112	Tennessee	$7,786	South Carolina	$12,004	42
43	WEST VIRGINIA	$1,621	Louisiana	$3,090	Maine	$7,734	Alabama	$11,940	43
44	North Carolina	$1,590	North Dakota	$3,086	Kentucky	$7,718	New Mexico	$11,875	44
45	Kentucky	$1,586	New Mexico	$3,077	South Carolina	$7,519	Idaho	$11,868	45
46	Tennessee	$1,576	WEST VIRGINIA	$3,061	Utah	$7,485	Arkansas	$11,507	46
47	Alabama	$1,518	South Carolina	$2,990	Alabama	$7,484	Louisiana	$11,473	47
48	South Carolina	$1,397	Alabama	$2,948	South Dakota	$7,452	Utah	$11,366	48
49	Arkansas	$1,390	Arkansas	$2,878	Arkansas	$7,180	WEST VIRGINIA	$11,020	49
50	Mississippi	$1,222	Mississippi	$2,626	Mississippi	$6,508	Mississippi	$10,292	50

Source: U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE, SURVEY OF CURRENT BUSINESS, August 1976, August 1977.
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERBureau of Economic Analysis, May 3, 1981, April, 1988.

Table 5

PERCENT PERSONS BELOW POVERTY LEVEL
1959, 1969, 1979 and 1982

Rank	State	1959	State	1969	State	1979	State	1982	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	22.1%	U.S. Avg.	13.7%	U.S. Avg.	12.4%	U.S. Avg.	15.0%	
1	Mississippi	54.5%	Mississippi	35.4%	Mississippi	23.9%	WEST VIRGINIA	25.0%	1
2	Arkansas	48.3%	Arkansas	27.8%	Arkansas	19.0%	Arkansas	23.8%	2
3	South Carolina	45.4%	Louisiana	26.3%	Alabama	18.9%	Tennessee	23.6%	3
4	Alabama	42.5%	Alabama	25.4%	Louisiana	18.6%	Mississippi	22.9%	4
5	North Carolina	40.6%	South Carolina	23.9%	Kentucky	17.6%	Louisiana	22.7%	5
6	Louisiana	39.5%	Kentucky	22.9%	New Mexico	17.6%	New Mexico	22.5%	6
7	Tennessee	39.3%	New Mexico	22.8%	South Dakota	16.9%	Alabama	21.6%	7
8	Georgia	39.0%	WEST VIRGINIA	22.2%	Georgia	16.6%	South Carolina	21.3%	8
9	Kentucky	38.3%	Tennessee	21.8%	South Carolina	16.6%	North Carolina	20.2%	9
10	WEST VIRGINIA	34.6%	Georgia	20.7%	Tennessee	16.5%	Georgia	19.7%	10
11	Texas	31.7%	North Carolina	20.3%	WEST VIRGINIA	15.0%	Montana	17.0%	11
12	Virginia	30.6%	Oklahoma	18.8%	North Carolina	14.8%	South Dakota	16.8%	12
13	South Dakota	30.1%	Texas	18.8%	Texas	14.7%	Michigan	16.3%	13
14	Oklahoma	29.9%	South Dakota	18.7%	Florida	13.5%	Kentucky	16.2%	14
	New Mexico	29.9%	Florida	16.4%	New York	13.4%	Texas	16.2%	
16	Florida	28.4%	North Dakota	15.7%	Oklahoma	13.4%	Idaho	15.6%	16
17	North Dakota	27.1%	Virginia	15.5%	Arizona	13.2%	Oklahoma	15.4%	17
18	Arizona	24.9%	Arizona	15.3%	Maine	13.0%	Florida	15.3%	18
19	Missouri	24.9%	Missouri	14.7%	Idaho	12.6%	Arizona	14.8%	19
20	Maine	23.7%	Maine	13.6%	North Dakota	12.6%	New York	14.8%	
21	Vermont	23.5%	Montana	13.6%	Montana	12.3%	Utah	14.8%	
22	Nebraska	22.3%	Idaho	13.2%	Missouri	12.2%	Missouri	14.6%	22
23	Iowa	21.5%	Nebraska	13.1%	Vermont	12.1%	California	14.1%	23
24	Kansas	19.7%	Kansas	12.7%	Delaware	11.9%	Oregon	13.8%	24
25	Montana	19.5%	Alaska	12.6%	Virginia	11.8%	Maine	13.7%	25
26	Minnesota	19.3%	Colorado	12.3%	California	11.4%	Nebraska	13.6%	26
27	Alaska	19.0%	Vermont	12.1%	Illinois	11.0%	Hawaii	13.5%	27
28	Idaho	18.7%	Wyoming	11.7%	Alaska	10.7%	Pennsylvania	13.5%	
29	Colorado	18.3%	Iowa	11.6%	Nebraska	10.7%	Illinois	13.4%	29
30	Indiana	17.5%	Oregon	11.5%	Oregon	10.7%	Iowa	13.4%	
31	Maryland	17.4%	Utah	11.4%	Pennsylvania	10.5%	Minnesota	13.4%	
32	Hawaii	17.1%	California	11.1%	Michigan	10.4%	Rhode Island	13.3%	32
33	Pennsylvania	17.0%	New York	11.1%	Ohio	10.3%	North Dakota	12.9%	33
34	Delaware	16.8%	Rhode Island	11.0%	Rhode Island	10.3%	Vermont	12.9%	
35	Rhode Island	16.5%	Delaware	10.9%	Utah	10.3%	Washington	12.9%	
36	Michigan	15.9%	Minnesota	10.7%	Colorado	10.1%	Ohio	12.8%	36
37	Ohio	15.9%	Pennsylvania	10.6%	Iowa	10.1%	Colorado	12.7%	37
38	Wisconsin	15.7%	Illinois	10.2%	Kansas	10.1%	Indiana	12.6%	38
39	Wyoming	15.6%	Washington	10.2%	Hawaii	9.9%	Virginia	12.5%	39
40	Utah	15.4%	Maryland	10.1%	Maryland	9.8%	Maryland	12.3%	40
41	Oregon	15.1%	Ohio	10.0%	Washington	9.8%	New Jersey	12.2%	41
42	New Hampshire	14.9%	Wisconsin	9.8%	Indiana	9.7%	Wyoming	12.0%	42
43	Illinois	14.7%	Indiana	9.7%	Massachusetts	9.6%	Delaware	11.5%	43
44	California	14.4%	Michigan	9.4%	Minnesota	9.5%	Alaska	10.6%	44
45	Washington	14.3%	Hawaii	9.3%	New Jersey	9.5%	Kansas	10.5%	45
46	New York	14.2%	New Hampshire	9.1%	Nevada	8.7%	Massachusetts	10.3%	46
47	Nevada	12.8%	Nevada	9.1%	Wisconsin	8.7%	New Hampshire	10.3%	
48	Massachusetts	12.2%	Massachusetts	8.6%	New Hampshire	8.5%	Wisconsin	9.5%	48
49	New Jersey	11.3%	New Jersey	8.1%	Connecticut	8.0%	Connecticut	8.1%	49
50	Connecticut	9.6%	Connecticut	7.2%	Wyoming	7.9%	Nevada	7.8%	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1977 and 1986.
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN INSTITUTE FOR POVERTY RESEARCH, 1984.

Table 6

PERCENT METROPOLITAN AREA POPULATION BY STATE
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	54.8%	U.S. Avg.	73.6%	U.S. Avg.	74.8%	U.S. Avg.	76.6%	
1	Massachusetts	97.4%	New Jersey	100.0%	California	94.9%	New Jersey	100.0%	1
2	California	90.2%	California	93.3%	Rhode Island	92.2%	California	95.7%	2
	New Jersey	90.2%	Rhode Island	91.3%	New Jersey	91.4%	Maryland	92.9%	3
4	New York	86.6%	New York	89.3%	New York	90.1%	Connecticut	92.6%	4
5	Connecticut	86.4%	Connecticut	88.9%	Maryland	88.8%	Rhode Island	92.5%	5
6	Rhode Island	83.6%	Massachusetts	87.5%	Connecticut	88.3%	Florida	90.9%	6
7	Maryland	82.3%	Florida	86.6%	Florida	87.9%	Massachusetts	90.8%	7
8	Hawaii	79.1%	Maryland	85.5%	Massachusetts	85.3%	New York	90.5%	8
9	Pennsylvania	78.8%	Michigan	82.8%	Michigan	82.8%	Pennsylvania	84.6%	9
10	Illinois	78.7%	Hawaii	81.9%	Nevada	82.0%	Nevada	82.5%	10
11	Ohio	76.8%	Illinois	81.5%	Pennsylvania	81.9%	Illinois	82.4%	11
12	Michigan	76.2%	Pennsylvania	81.2%	Illinois	81.0%	Colorado	81.6%	12
13	Utah	74.7%	Nevada	80.7%	Colorado	80.9%	Washington	81.0%	13
14	Nevada	74.1%	Ohio	80.7%	Washington	80.4%	Texas	80.7%	14
15	Arizona	71.4%	Colorado	80.4%	Ohio	80.3%	Michigan	80.2%	15
16	Texas	69.0%	Utah	79.6%	Texas	80.0%	Ohio	78.8%	16
17	Delaware	68.9%	Texas	77.9%	Hawaii	79.0%	Utah	77.0%	17
18	Colorado	68.0%	Arizona	74.5%	Utah	79.0%	Hawaii	76.9%	18
19	Florida	67.1%	Washington	73.0%	Arizona	75.1%	Arizona	75.4%	19
20	Washington	63.1%	Delaware	70.4%	Indiana	69.8%	Virginia	71.5%	20
21	Indiana	61.2%	Indiana	68.0%	Virginia	69.6%	Louisiana	69.1%	21
22	Missouri	60.1%	Virginia	66.1%	Delaware	67.0%	Indiana	68.0%	22
23	Oregon	58.7%	Missouri	65.0%	Wisconsin	66.8%	Oregon	67.4%	23
24	Louisiana	53.7%	Minnesota	64.4%	Missouri	65.3%	Tennessee	66.8%	24
25	Virginia	53.4%	Wisconsin	63.9%	Oregon	64.9%	Wisconsin	66.5%	25
26	Alabama	51.8%	Tennessee	63.6%	Minnesota	64.6%	Delaware	66.0%	26
27	Minnesota	49.9%	Louisiana	62.1%	Louisiana	63.4%	Missouri	65.9%	27
28	Wisconsin	48.4%	Alabama	61.8%	Tennessee	62.8%	Minnesota	65.8%	28
29	Tennessee	47.6%	Oregon	61.2%	Alabama	62.0%	Georgia	64.3%	29
30	Georgia	46.0%	Georgia	56.5%	Georgia	60.0%	Alabama	64.1%	30
31	Oklahoma	45.9%	Oklahoma	55.2%	South Carolina	59.8%	South Carolina	60.2%	31
32	Kansas	39.1%	South Carolina	47.2%	Oklahoma	58.5%	Oklahoma	58.5%	32
33	Nebraska	38.4%	Kentucky	46.9%	North Carolina	52.7%	New Hampshire	56.4%	33
34	South Carolina	35.8%	Kansas	46.0%	New Hampshire	50.7%	North Carolina	55.0%	34
35	Kentucky	34.8%	North Carolina	44.9%	Kansas	46.8%	Kansas	52.0%	35
36	North Carolina	33.6%	Nebraska	42.9%	Kentucky	44.5%	New Mexico	47.6%	36
37	Iowa	33.2%	Alaska	41.8%	Nebraska	44.1%	Nebraska	46.9%	37
38	WEST VIRGINIA	30.9%	Arkansas	38.2%	Alaska	43.4%	Kentucky	45.5%	38
39	New Hampshire	29.4%	WEST VIRGINIA	39.1%	New Mexico	42.3%	Alaska	44.0%	39
40	Arkansas	29.1%	Iowa	36.6%	Iowa	40.1%	Iowa	42.9%	40
41	Maine	27.8%	New Hampshire	35.5%	Arkansas	39.2%	Arkansas	39.3%	41
42	New Mexico	27.6%	New Mexico	32.8%	WEST VIRGINIA	37.1%	North Dakota	37.3%	42
43	Montana	22.6%	South Dakota	25.8%	North Dakota	35.9%	WEST VIRGINIA	36.6%	43
44	Mississippi	15.6%	Mississippi	24.5%	Maine	33.0%	Maine	36.1%	44
45	Idaho	14.0%	Maine	24.4%	Mississippi	27.1%	Mississippi	30.0%	45
46	South Dakota	12.7%	Montana	24.4%	Montana	24.0%	Wyoming	28.8%	46
47	North Dakota	10.6%	North Dakota	21.8%	Vermont	22.3%	South Dakota	28.2%	47
48	Alaska	*	Idaho	15.7%	Idaho	18.3%	Montana	24.4%	48
49	Vermont	*	Vermont	*	South Dakota	15.8%	Vermont	23.1%	49
50	Wyoming	*	Wyoming	*	Wyoming	15.3%	Idaho	19.4%	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961, 1971, 1980, and 1988.

* Not applicable.

Note: SMSA-Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas. An SMSA is a county or group of contiguous counties which contains at least one central city of 50,000 inhabitants or more.

Table 7

POLLUTION ABATEMENT CAPITAL EXPENDITURES AS COMPARED TO VALUE OF INDUSTRIAL SHIPMENTS 1973, 1978 AND 1983

Rank	State	1973	State	1978	State	1983	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	0.269	U.S. Avg.	0.415	U.S. Avg.	0.100	
1	Arizona	2.069	WEST VIRGINIA	1.588	Louisiana	0.358	1
2	Nevada	1.058	Delaware	1.141	WEST VIRGINIA	0.313	2
3	Montana	0.964	Louisiana	0.940	Arizona	0.305	3
4	Washington	0.881	Arizona	0.827	Mississippi	0.266	4
5	WEST VIRGINIA	0.847	Texas	0.717	Alabama	0.195	5
6	Delaware	0.616	Maine	0.661	Maine	0.195	6
7	Idaho	0.605	Alabama	0.645	South Carolina	0.180	7
8	Maine	0.562	Alaska	0.827	Utah	0.175	8
9	Louisiana	0.555	Mississippi	0.568	Texas	0.171	9
10	Alabama	0.548	Maryland	0.567	Delaware	0.165	10
11	Kentucky	0.489	Pennsylvania	0.544	Tennessee	0.142	11
12	Texas	0.470	Idaho	0.533	Arkansas	0.139	12
13	Florida	0.447	Indiana	0.520	Florida	0.133	13
14	Oregon	0.362	Florida	0.516	Washington	0.125	14
15	Mississippi	0.340	Montana	0.516	Kentucky	0.124	15
	Arkansas	0.340	Washington	0.512	South Dakota	0.124	
17	Colorado	0.320	Oregon	0.446	Oregon	0.123	17
18	Virginia	0.315	New Jersey	0.441	Vermont	0.110	18
19	Georgia	0.295	Utah	0.441	Virginia	0.102	19
20	Pennsylvania	0.284	Tennessee	0.440	Minnesota	0.099	20
21	Utah	0.240	South Carolina	0.417	Idaho	0.096	21
	Iowa	0.240	Arkansas	0.407	Pennsylvania	0.094	22
23	North Carolina	0.237	Kentucky	0.393	New Jersey	0.088	23
24	South Carolina	0.235	Ohio	0.392	Maryland	0.077	24
25	Maryland	0.226	Hawaii	0.381	Michigan	0.076	25
26	New Jersey	0.224	Virginia	0.365	Montana	0.073	26
27	Indiana	0.218	California	0.356	Ohio	0.073	27
28	Okalahoma	0.213	Illinois	0.316	California	0.069	28
29	California	0.208	Michigan	0.316	North Carolina	0.068	29
30	New Hampshire	0.206	Colorado	0.314	Indiana	0.063	30
	Tennessee	0.206	Wisconsin	0.286	Illinois	0.061	31
32	Ohio	0.198	Georgia	0.277	New York	0.061	32
33	Wisconsin	0.195	New York	0.270	Iowa	0.056	33
34	Illinois	0.181	Iowa	0.257	Wyoming	0.056	34
35	Michigan	0.171	Missouri	0.253	Massachusetts	0.055	35
36	Minnesota	0.148	Okalahoma	0.243	Georgia	0.052	36
	Kansas	0.148	Minnesota	0.240	Wisconsin	0.052	37
38	South Carolina	0.146	North Carolina	0.236	Missouri	0.051	38
39	Connecticut	0.140	Connecticut	0.218	Rhode Island	0.050	39
40	Nebraska	0.128	Kansas	0.203	Kansas	0.048	40
41	New York	0.122	Massachusetts	0.183	Connecticut	0.042	41
42	North Dakota	0.116	Rhode Island	0.150	Okalahoma	0.035	42
43	Missouri	0.112	Nebraska	0.132	Colorado	0.033	43
44	Vermont	0.110	Nevada (2)		Hawaii	0.032	44
45	Massachusetts	0.103	New Hampshire (2)		New Hampshire	0.020	45
46	Rhode Island	0.102	New Mexico (1)		Nebraska	0.016	46
47	Alaska (1)		North Dakota (2)		Alaska (1)		47
48	Hawaii (1)		South Dakota (2)		Nevada (2)		48
49	New Mexico (1)		Vermont (2)		New Mexico (1)		49
50	Wyoming (1)		Wyoming (2)		North Dakota (1)		50

Source: POLLUTION ABATEMENT COSTS AND EXPENDITURES, 1978, Current Industrial Reports, Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.
STATE AND METROPOLITAN AREA DATA BOOK, 1982 and 1986, Bureau of the Census.

(1) Figure withheld to avoid disclosure of information pertaining to a specific organization.

(2) Figure suppressed; does not meet publication standards.

Table 8

POLLUTION ABATEMENT
CAPITAL EXPENDITURES, PER CAPITA
1973, 1979 AND 1983

Rank	State	1973	State	1979	State	1983	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$11.22	U.S. Avg.	$16.07	U.S. Avg.	$8.74	
1	Arizona	$49.30	Delaware	$56.17	Louisiana	$42.67	1
2	Delaware	$40.49	Louisiana	$53.78	Delaware	$26.33	2
3	Washington	$34.74	Kansas	$49.00	Mississippi	$20.73	3
4	WEST VIRGINIA	$26.57	Indiana	$41.51	Texas	$17.79	4
5	Montana	$23.70	Washington	$38.45	South Carolina	$16.79	5
6	Kentucky	$21.06	Maine	$33.90	WEST VIRGINIA	$16.58	6
7	Alabama	$20.14	Idaho	$30.67	Alabama	$16.05	7
8	Louisiana	$19.22	Arkansas	$28.30	Maine	$14.75	8
9	Idaho	$18.30	Alabama	$27.15	Arizona	$13.74	9
10	Maine	$17.61	Texas	$26.81	Tennessee	$13.32	10
11	Texas	$17.07	Pennsylvania	$24.06	Arkansas	$12.48	11
12	Oregon	$14.78	Michigan	$24.00	Washington	$10.98	12
13	Indiana	$14.40	Oregon	$20.81	Kentucky	$10.95	13
14	Iowa	$13.52	Ohio	$19.56	Utah	$9.65	14
15	Pennsylvania	$13.33	Tennessee	$18.67	Minnesota	$8.79	15
16	Arkansas	$13.12	Illinois	$15.91	Oregon	$8.67	16
17	Georgia	$12.91	Minnesota	$15.53	New Jersey	$8.55	17
18	North Carolina	$12.24	Montana	$14.38	Ohio	$8.45	18
19	Michigan	$11.99	Kentucky	$13.30	Vermont	$8.20	19
20	Ohio	$11.78	South Carolina	$13.06	Pennsylvania	$8.19	20
21	Mississippi	$11.55	New Jersey	$11.77	Indiana	$7.95	21
22	New Jersey	$11.06	Virginia	$10.64	North Carolina	$7.73	22
23	Wisconsin	$10.80	Utah	$10.50	Michigan	$7.70	23
24	Illinois	$10.13	Alaska	$10.25	Virginia	$7.23	24
25	Nevada	$9.98	North Carolina	$10.12	Iowa	$6.13	25
26	Virginia	$9.56	Georgia	$9.48	Illinois	$6.10	26
27	Tennessee	$9.52	New York	$9.25	Wisconsin	$6.02	27
28	Colorado	$8.39	Iowa	$8.66	Idaho	$5.60	28
29	Florida	$7.91	Mississippi	$8.64	South Dakota	$5.57	29
30	California	$7.63	Oklahoma	$8.13	Kansas	$5.54	30
31	New Hampshire	$6.93	California	$7.50	California	$5.50	31
32	South Carolina	$6.64	Missouri	$7.47	Florida	$5.05	32
33	Utah	$6.52	Wisconsin	$7.38	Georgia	$4.78	33
34	Maryland	$6.38	Florida	$6.61	Massachusetts	$4.78	
35	Connecticut	$6.27	Arizona	$6.42	Missouri	$4.58	35
	Kansas	$6.27	Connecticut	$6.35	New York	$4.33	36
37	Minnesota	$5.81	Massachusetts	$5.61	Connecticut	$4.13	37
	Nebraska	$5.81	Wyoming	$5.20	Rhode Island	$4.10	38
39	Oklahoma	$5.17	New Mexico	$2.92	Maryland	$4.02	39
40	Missouri	$5.05	Rhode Island	$2.70	Montana	$3.38	40
41	South Dakota	$4.40	Nevada	$1.00	Oklahoma	$2.45	41
42	New York	$4.34	Colorado (2)		Wyoming	$2.40	42
43	Rhode Island	$3.83	Hawaii (2)		Colorado	$1.97	43
44	Massachusetts	$3.78	Maryland (2)		New Hampshire	$1.60	44
45	Vermont	$3.22	Nebraska (2)		Nebraska	$1.38	45
46	North Dakota	$1.42	New Hampshire (2)		Hawaii	$1.10	46
47	Alaska (1)		North Dakota (2)		Alaska (1)		47
48	Hawaii (1)		South Dakota (2)		Nevada (2)		48
49	New Mexico (1)		Vermont (2)		New Mexico (1)		49
50	Wyoming (1)		WEST VIRGINIA (2)		North Dakota (1)		50

Source: POLLUTION ABATEMENT COSTS AND EXPENDITURES, 1978, Current Industrial Reports, Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.
STATE AND METROPOLITAN AREA DATA BOOK, 1982 and 1986, Bureau of the Census.

(1) Figure withheld to avoid disclosure of information pertaining to a specific organization.

(2) Figure suppressed; does not meet publication standards.

Table 9

PER CAPITA VALUE ADDED BY MANUFACTURE
1960, 1971, 1980, 1985

Rank	State	1960	State	1971	State	1980	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$911	U.S. Avg.	$1,523	U.S. Avg.	$3,405	U.S. Avg.	$4,186	
1	Connecticut	$1,488	Indiana	$2,302	Connecticut	$5,129	Connecticut	$6,506	1
2	Ohio	$1,421	Delaware	$2,292	Indiana	$4,905	North Carolina	$6,252	2
3	New Jersey	$1,414	Michigan	$2,253	Ohio	$4,646	Indiana	$6,084	3
4	Michigan	$1,386	Ohio	$2,234	Wisconsin	$4,511	Ohio	$5,970	4
5	Indiana	$1,341	Illinois	$2,038	Illinois	$4,421	Michigan	$5,895	5
6	Illinois	$1,252	Connecticut	$1,972	North Carolina	$4,237	Wisconsin	$5,811	6
7	Wisconsin	$1,195	New Jersey	$1,970	Delaware	$4,138	Massachusetts	$5,665	7
8	Massachusetts	$1,170	North Carolina	$1,905	New Jersey	$4,085	Delaware	$5,434	8
9	Delaware	$1,149	Wisconsin	$1,895	Massachusetts	$4,043	New Hampshire	$5,050	9
10	Pennsylvania	$1,141	Pennsylvania	$1,846	Iowa	$3,972	Illinois	$4,818	10
11	Rhode Island	$1,091	Tennessee	$1,685	Michigan	$3,968	New Jersey	$4,777	11
12	New York	$1,070	Massachusetts	$1,648	Pennsylvania	$3,960	Kansas	$4,756	12
13	Missouri	$895	South Carolina	$1,608	New Hampshire	$3,907	Tennessee	$4,662	13
14	California	$893	Missouri	$1,595	Rhode Island	$3,736	Iowa	$4,640	14
15	New Hampshire	$867	Kentucky	$1,578	South Carolina	$3.560	Minnesota	$4,627	15
16	Maryland	$866	New York	$1,573	Tennessee	$3,512	Georgia	$4,514	16
17	North Carolina	$832	Rhode Island	$1,532	Minnesota	$3,504	Rhode Island	$4,435	17
18	Washington	$799	New Hampshire	$1,437	California	$3,384	South Carolina	$4,389	18
19	Oregon	$761	Georgia	$1,401	Washington	$3,369	Pennsylvania	$4,371	19
20	WEST VIRGINIA	$740	Iowa	$1,378	Missouri	$3,325	Missouri	$4,321	20
21	Tennessee	$723	California	$1,359	New York	$3,308	California	$4,225	21
22	South Carolina	$719	WEST VIRGINIA	$1,351	Vermont	$3,295	Kentucky	$4,161	22
23	Maine	$711	Oregon	$1,312	Texas	$3,292	New York	$4,136	23
24	Minnesota	$693	Alabama	$1,299	Kentucky	$3,254	Maine	$4,006	24
25	Iowa	$659	Minnesota	$1,251	Maine	$3,197	Virginia	$3,871	25
26	Kentucky	$640	Vermont	$1,243	Kansas	$3,168	Alabama	$3,805	26
27	Georgia	$631	Arkansas	$1,240	Louisiana	$3,054	Oregon	$3,539	27
28	Virginia	$610	Texas	$1,207	Georgia	$3,046	Arkansas	$3,538	28
29	Utah	$608	Washington	$1,196	Oregon	$3,000	Mississippi	$3,492	29
30	Texas	$604	Maine	$1,194	Alabama	$2,912	Texas	$3,369	30
31	Alabama	$598	Kansas	$1,135	Virginia	$2,820	Washington	$3,362	31
32	Kansas	$567	Virginia	$1,096	Mississippi	$2,772	Nebraska	$3,329	32
33	Colorado	$526	Maryland	$1,068	Arkansas	$2,747	Vermont	$3,252	33
34	Louisiana	$483	Nebraska	$1,057	WEST VIRGINIA	$2,493	Colorado	$3,127	34
35	Nebraska	$436	Mississippi	$994	Nebraska	$2,461	Utah	$2,947	36
36	Arkansas	$425	Louisiana	$949	Oklahoma	$2,402	Oklahoma	$2,834	36
37	Vermont	$414	Colorado	$917	Utah	$2,320	Louisiana	$2,747	37
38	Idaho	$411	Idaho	$908	Colorado	$2,292	Maryland	$2,710	38
39	Arizona	$365	Utah	$789	Maryland	$2,213	Idaho	$2,526	39
40	Florida	$359	Arizona	$744	Idaho	$2,039	Arizona	$2,491	40
41	Oklahoma	$343	Oklahoma	$705	Arizona	$1,951	WEST VIRGINIA	$2,451	41
42	Mississippi	$319	Florida	$686	Montana	$1,741	South Dakota	$1,934	42
43	Alaska	$314	Alaska	$633	Alaska	$1,524	Florida	$1,912	43
44	Montana	$303	Hawaii	$551	Florida	$1,520	Alaska	$1,638	44
45	Hawaii	$285	Montana	$465	South Dakota	$1,404	Hawaii	$1,137	45
46	Nevada	$247	Wyoming	$351	Hawaii	$1,289	New Mexico	$1,127	46
47	Wyoming	$221	South Dakota	$335	Wyoming	$1,265	Nevada	$1,105	47
48	South Dakota	$179	North Dakota	$301	North Dakota	$852	North Dakota	$1,074	48
49	New Mexico	$129	Nevada	$286	Nevada	$836	Montana	$1,051	49
50	North Dakota	$95	New Mexico	$261	New Mexico	$818	Wyoming	$916	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, 1973, 1983, and 1988.

Table 10

AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS OF PRODUCTION WORKERS ON MANUFACTURING PAYROLLS, BY STATE
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$90	U.S. Avg.	$134	U.S. Avg.	$287	U.S. Avg.	$389	
1	Nevada	$113	Alaska	$192	Alaska	$436	Michigan	$545	1
2	Michigan	$112	Michigan	$168	Michigan	$382	Ohio	$487	2
3	California	$104	Nevada	$161	Montana	$379	Alaska	$478	3
	Ohio	$104	Washington	$159	Washington	$361	Washington	$464	4
5	Washington	$102	Ohio	$155	Ohio	$348	Indiana	$449	5
6	Indiana	$100	California	$150	Iowa	$343	Louisiana	$443	6
7	Arizona	$99	Indiana	$149	Indiana	$338	Illinois	$436	7
	Utah	$99	Oregon	$148	Oregon	$330	Montana	$431	8
9	Colorado	$98	Montana	$148	Wisconsin	$323	Wisconsin	$427	9
	Illinois	$98	Illinois	$147	Illinois	$319	Connecticut	$421	10
11	Oregon	$97	Iowa	$147	Louisiana	$319	California	$418	11
12	Wisconsin	$96	Wisconsin	$146	WEST VIRGINIA	$317	Iowa	$418	
	Montana	$96	Minnesota	$141	Delaware	$307	WEST VIRGINIA	$418	
	Kansas	$96	Connecticut	$140	California	$304	Delaware	$417	14
15	Wyoming	$95	New Jersey	$139	Colorado	$304	New Jersey	$417	
	Minnesota	$95	Louisiana	$137	Maryland	$301	Minnesota	$414	16
17	New Jersey	$94	WEST VIRGINIA	$136	Minnesota	$300	Oregon	$412	17
	Iowa	$94	Delaware	$136	Nebraska	$300	Oklahoma	$405	18
19	WEST VIRGINIA	$93	Maryland	$136	Kansas	$298	Arizona	$403	19
	Connecticut	$93	New York	$135	New Jersey	$297	Maryland	$403	
21	Delaware	$91	Nebraska	$135	Connecticut	$296	Utah	$401	21
	South Dakota	$91	Missouri	$133	Nevada	$295	Texas	$400	22
	Maryland	$91	South Dakota	$133	Oklahoma	$295	Missouri	$397	23
24	Idaho	$90	Pennsylvania	$132	Texas	$295	New York	$396	24
	Pennsylvania	$90	Arizona	$132	Pennsylvania	$294	Kansas	$393	25
	New York	$90	Wyoming	$130	Arizona	$292	Pennsylvania	$392	26
27	Texas	$89	Kentucky	$129	Kentucky	$287	Colorado	$391	27
28	Missouri	$88	Texas	$129	Missouri	$285	Kentucky	$387	28
29	Nebraska	$87	Idaho	$128	New York	$283	Massachusetts	$382	29
	Louisiana	$87	Hawaii	$127	Idaho	$280	Wyoming	$378	30
31	Oklahoma	$85	Utah	$127	Utah	$274	Nevada	$376	31
32	Kentucky	$84	Massachusetts	$127	Wyoming	$273	Nebraska	$374	32
33	New Mexico	$83	Oklahoma	$126	South Dakota	$267	Idaho	$369	33
34	Massachusetts	$82	Vermont	$120	Alabama	$260	New Hampshire	$383	34
	North Dakota	$82	North Dakota	$119	Hawaii	$258	Vermont	$359	35
36	Vermont	$77	Florida	$119	Massachusetts	$258	Virginia	$357	36
37	Florida	$76	Alabama	$117	Vermont	$249	Alabama	$355	37
	Alabama	$76	Rhode Island	$112	North Dakota	$246	Tennessee	$354	38
39	Rhode Island	$74	New Hampshire	$109	Florida	$244	Maine	$351	39
40	Tennessee	$73	Virginia	$109	Virginia	$244	New Mexico	$347	40
41	Maine	$71	Tennessee	$109	Tennessee	$241	Hawaii	$345	41
	Virginia	$71	Maine	$109	Maine	$240	Georgia	$341	42
43	New Hampshire	$70	Georgia	$106	New Hampshire	$234	Florida	$327	43
44	Georgia	$65	New Mexico	$105	Georgia	$232	South Carolina	$326	44
45	South Carolina	$63	South Carolina	$101	New Mexico	$230	South Dakota	$324	45
46	Arkansas	$62	Arkansas	$99	South Carolina	$225	Rhode Island	$320	46
47	North Carolina	$61	Mississippi	$98	Arkansas	$224	Arkansas	$314	47
48	Mississippi	$60	North Carolina	$97	Rhode Island	$220	North Dakota	$312	48
49	Alaska	N/A	Colorado(a)		Mississippi	$214	North Carolina	$307	49
50	Hawaii	N/A	Kansas(a)		North Carolina	$211	Mississippi	$300	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT 1961 and 1971, U.S. Bureau of the Census.
EMPLOYMENT AND EARMINGS, 1983 and 1987, U.S. Department of Labor.

N/A Data is not available for states of Alaska and Hawaii.

(a) Source requested that data previously published not be shown because of errors.

Table 11

UNION MEMBERSHIP AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL NON-AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT, BY STATE

1964, 1970, 1980, 1982

Rank	State	1964	State	1970	State	1980	State	1982	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	29.5%	U.S. Avg.	28.0%	U.S. Avg.	25.2%	U.S. Avg.	21.9%	
1	WEST VIRGINIA	44.7%	WEST VIRGINIA	42.8%	New York	38.7%	New York	35.8%	1
2	Washington	44.0%	Washington	40.2%	Michigan	37.4%	Michigan	33.7%	2
3	Michigan	42.7%	Michigan	39.8%	Pennsylvania	34.6%	Washington	32.9%	3
4	Pennsylvania	38.7%	Pennsylvania	37.2%	Washington	34.4%	Hawaii	31.5%	4
5	New York	38.5%	Ohio	36.4%	WEST VIRGINIA	34.4%	Alaska	30.4%	5
6	Illinois	38.4%	Illinois	35.8%	Alaska	33.6%	WEST VIRGINIA	28.9%	6
7	Missouri	37.9%	Missouri	35.7%	Ohio	31.5%	Illinois	27.5%	7
8	Ohio	36.7%	New York	35.7%	Illinois	30.6%	Oregon	27.5%	
9	Indiana	36.4%	Indiana	35.5%	Indiana	30.4%	Ohio	27.4%	9
10	Montana	35.2%	Nevada(1)	32.5%	Montana	29.2%	Pennsylvania	27.0%	10
11	Oregon	34.2%	Wisconsin	31.5%	Wisconsin	28.6%	Missouri	26.6%	11
12	Minnesota	34.0%	California	30.8%	Rhode Island	28.4%	California	25.4%	12
13	Wisconsin	33.4%	Oregon	30.7%	Missouri	27.6%	Indiana	25.1%	13
14	California	33.3%	Montana	29.8%	California	27.0%	Minnesota	24.5%	14
15	Nevada(1)	32.8%	New Jersey	29.4%	Hawaii	27.0%	Wisconsin	24.5%	
16	New Jersey	32.3%	Minnesota	28.7%	Minnesota	26.2%	Nevada(1)	22.1%	16
17	Alaska	32.1%	Hawaii	27.9%	Oregon	26.0%	Montana	21.7%	17
18	Rhode Island	28.3%	Kentucky	27.5%	New Jersey	25.6%	Iowa(1)	20.5%	18
19	Massachusetts	28.0%	Alaska	26.9%	Delaware	25.1%	Kentucky	20.4%	19
20	Connecticut	27.0%	Rhode Island	25.9%	Massachusetts	24.9%	Delaware	20.3%	20
	Kentucky	27.0%	Massachusetts	25.1%	Maine	24.1%	New Jersey	19.9%	21
22	Delaware	24.0%	Connecticut	24.2%	Kentucky	24.0%	Massachusetts	19.7%	22
23	Hawaii	23.6%	Maryland(2)	23.4%	Nevada(1)	23.8%	Rhode Island	19.4%	23
24	Maryland(2)	22.9%	Delaware	22.5%	Connecticut	22.9%	Connecticut	18.9%	24
25	Iowa(1)	22.6%	Iowa(1)	21.1%	Maryland	22.6%	Maryland	18.6%	25
26	Colorado	22.3%	Utah(1)	20.9%	Iowa(1)	22.0%	Maine	18.5%	26
27	Maine	20.8%	Tennessee(1)	20.6%	Alabama(1)	21.8%	Alabama(1)	18.2%	27
28	New Hampshire	20.1%	Colorado	20.5%	Tennessee(1)	19.1%	Colorado	18.0%	28
29	Wyoming	19.4%	Alabama(1)	20.2%	New Mexico	18.9%	Tennessee(1)	17.3%	29
30	Nebraska(1)	19.2%	Louisiana	18.5%	Wyoming	18.6%	Utah(1)	16.8%	30
	Tennessee(1)	19.2%	Maine	18.4%	Idaho	18.5%	Nebraska(1)	16.3%	31
32	Idaho	19.0%	Idaho	18.3%	Nebraska(1)	18.2%	Idaho	16.1%	32
33	Alabama(1)	18.7%	Arkansas(1)	17.8%	Colorado	18.1%	Wyoming(1)	15.6%	33
	Louisiana	18.7%	Nebraska	17.8%	Vermont	18.0%	North Dakota(1)	14.2%	34
	Vermont	18.7%	Arizona	17.5%	Utah(1)	17.8%	Louisiana(1)	13.8%	35
36	Kansas(1)	18.6%	Wyoming	17.4%	North Dakota(1)	17.1%	Arkansas(1)	13.2%	36
37	Arizona	18.5%	New Hampshire	17.3%	Louisiana	16.4%	Oklahoma	12.9%	37
38	Utah(1)	18.0%	North Dakota(1)	17.2%	Mississippi(1)	16.3%	Arizona(1)	12.8%	38
39	Arkansas(1)	17.0%	Virginia(1)	16.7%	Arkansas(1)	16.0%	New Mexico	12.8%	
40	Virginia(1)	15.8%	Kansas(1)	16.5%	Arizona	15.8%	Georgia(1)	12.7%	40
41	Oklahoma	15.1%	Vermont	16.2%	New Hampshire	15.8%	Texas(1)	12.5%	41
42	North Dakota(1)	14.8%	Georgia(1)	16.1%	Kansas(1)	15.5%	New Hampshire	12.3%	42
43	New Mexico	14.5%	Oklahoma	16.1%	Oklahoma	15.3%	Kansas(1)	12.0%	43
44	Texas(1)	14.1%	New Mexico	14.7%	Georgia(1)	15.0%	Vermont	11.7%	44
45	Florida(1)	14.0%	Texas(1)	14.4%	South Dakota(1)	14.7%	Virginia(1)	10.9%	45
	Georgia(1)	14.0%	Florida(1)	13.9%	Virginia(1)	14.7%	South Dakota(1)	10.3%	46
47	Mississippi(1)	13.5%	Mississippi(1)	13.2%	Florida(1)	11.7%	Florida(1)	9.6%	47
48	South Dakota(1)	10.0%	South Dakota(1)	11.9%	Texas(1)	11.4%	Mississippi(1)	9.3%	48
49	North Carolina(1	7.4%	South Carolina(1	9.6%	North Carolina(1	9.6%	North Carolina(1	8.9%	49
	South Carolina(1	7.4%	North Carolina(1	7.7%	South Carolina(1	7.8%	South Carolina(1	5.8%	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1966, 1972, 1984, and 1987.

(1) State has a right to work law.
(2) Includes the District of Columbia.

TABLE 12

WORK STOPPAGES
1960, 1970 AND 1981

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1981	Rank
	U.S. Total	3,333	U.S. Total	5,717	U.S. Total	2,568	
1	New York	427	Pennsylvania	635	Pennsylvania	323	1
2	Pennsylvania	398	Ohio	633	New York	255	2
3	Ohio	303	New York	572	California	228	3
4	California	292	Illinois	413	Ohio	226	4
5	New Jersey	205	California	342	Illinois	187	5
6	Illinois	197	Michigan	313	New York	136	6
7	Michigan	145	WEST VIRGINIA	313	Michigan	129	7
8	Indiana	123	New Jersey	281	Minnesota	106	8
9	Massachusetts	120	Indiana	219	Massachusetts	102	9
10	Florida	98	Massachusetts	185	WEST VIRGINIA	95	10
11	WEST VIRGINIA	82	Missouri	169	Indiana	94	11
12	Tennessee	79	Kentucky	161	Missouri	69	12
13	Missouri	74	Tennessee	141	Kentucky	62	13
14	Texas	71	Florida	130	Wisconsin	54	14
15	Wisconsin	63	Virginia	127	Texas	52	15
16	Alabama	60	Wisconsin	119	Washington	51	16
17	Kentucky	54	Minnesota	114	Connecticut	42	17
18	Connecticut	53	Tennessee	107	Virginia	42	
19	Washington	46	Alabama	98	Iowa	41	19
20	Iowa	41	Maryland	91	Tennessee	36	20
21	Maryland	39	Connecticut	89	Rhode Island	31	21
	Nebraska	39	Iowa	89	Maryland	30	22
23	Colorado	38	Georgia	72	Alabama	29	23
24	Louisiana	37	Washington	57	Colorado		24
	Minnesota	37	Louisiana	55	Oklahoma	26	25
26	Hawaii	32	Kansas	49	Oregon	24	26
27	Virginia	31	North Carolina	45	Georgia	23	27
28	Georgia	28	Colorado	43	Florida	19	28
	Oklahoma	28	Rhode Island	40	Kansas	16	29
30	Kansas	25	Oregon	38	New Hampshire	15	30
31	Delaware	21	Nebraska	36	Montana	14	31
32	Arkansas	20	Mississippi	35	Arkansas	13	32
	Idaho	20	Arizona	32	Arizona	12	33
	Wyoming	20	Arkansas	30	Nebraska	11	34
35	Alaska	19	Delaware	29	Idaho	10	35
	Oregon	19	Oklahoma	29	Maine	10	
37	Mississippi	18	New Mexico	28	New Mexico	10	
	Rhode Island	18	Nevada	23	North Carolina	10	
39	New Mexico	17	Hawaii	22	Vermont	10	
	Utah	17	New Hampshire	22	Mississippi	9	40
41	Montana	15	Utah	22	Utah	9	
42	Arizona	13	Maine	21	Delaware	7	42
43	North Carolina	12	South Dakota	21	Hawaii	7	
44	Maine	11	Vermont	21	Louisiana	7	
45	South Carolina	9	Montana	18	North Dakota	6	45
46	South Dakota	8	Alaska	17	Wyoming	6	
47	Vermont	7	Idaho	15	Alaska	5	47
48	Nevada	6	South Carolina	14	Nevada	5	
	New Hampshire	6	North Dakota	12	South Carolina	5	
50	North Dakota	3	Wyoming	8	South Dakota	3	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962 and 1971.
HANDBOOK OF LABOR STATISTICS, 1982, U.S. Department of Labor.

TABLE 13

NON-AGRICULTURAL UNEMPLOYMENT, BY STATE
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960 (000)	State	1970 (000)	State	1980 (000)	State	1986 (000)	Rank
	U.S. Total	2,295	U.S. Total	4,060	U.S. Total(a)	7,331	U.S. Total	8,237	
1	California	239	California	519	California	750	California	892	1
2	New York	224	New York	370	New York	569	Texas	723	2
3	Pennsylvania	194	Michigan	254	Michigan	516	New York	526	3
4	Michigan	139	Illinois	202	Ohio	462	Illinois	462	4
5	Ohio	138	Pennsylvania	202	Illinois	452	Ohio	425	5
6	Illinois	118	Ohio	174	Pennsylvania	411	Pennsylvania	386	6
7	Texas	103	New Jersey	171	Texas	298	Michigan	385	7
8	New Jersey	63	Texas	168	Florida	263	Florida	320	8
9	Florida	57	Massachusetts	137	Indiana	252	Louisiana	262	9
	Massachusetts	57	Washington	117	New Jersey	249	New Jersey	197	10
11	Indiana	47	Indiana	104	North Carolina	182	Indiana	186	11
	Minnesota	47	Missouri	96	Massachusetts	173	Alabama	185	12
13	Louisiana	46	Florida	94	Missouri	162	Tennessee	184	13
14	Missouri	45	Wisconsin	90	Georgia	161	Washington	180	14
	Washington	45	Louisiana	85	Wisconsin	155	Georgia	177	15
16	Kentucky	44	North Carolina	85	Alabama	148	North Carolina	169	16
	Tennessee	44	Connecticut	78	Washington	143	Wisconsin	169	
18	Alabama	42	Tennessee	76	Tennessee	141	Kentucky	157	18
19	Wisconsin	40	Georgia	71	Virginia	136	Missouri	155	19
20	WEST VIRGINIA	39	Minnesota	70	Kentucky	127	Virginia	145	20
21	North Carolina	38	Alabama	62	Maryland	127	Mississippi	135	21
	Virginia	38	Kentucky	62	Minnesota	119	Oklahoma	132	22
23	Maryland	36	Maryland	59	Louisiana	105	Colorado	126	23
24	Georgia	35	Virginia	58	Oregon	101	Minnesota	119	24
25	Oregon	27	Oregon	55	Connecticut	93	Massachusetts	118	25
26	Connecticut	26	South Carolina	54	Colorado	90	Oregon	115	26
27	Oklahoma	24	Oklahoma	45	South Carolina	88	Arizona	110	27
28	Arkansas	23	Iowa	44	Arizona	83	Maryland	105	28
	Iowa	23	Kansas	44	Iowa	79	Iowa	101	29
	Mississippi	23	Mississippi	40	Arkansas	73	South Carolina	99	30
31	Kansas	20	WEST VIRGINIA	40	Mississippi	70	Arkansas	94	31
32	South Carolina	19	Arkansas	38	WEST VIRGINIA	70	WEST VIRGINIA	88	32
33	Colorado	17	Colorado	30	Oklahoma	60	Kansas	67	33
34	Arizona	16	Arizona	28	Kansas	54	Connecticut	66	34
35	Maine	14	Utah	25	New Mexico	43	New Mexico	62	35
36	New Mexico	12	New Mexico	24	Maine	37	Utah	45	36
37	Montana	11	Maine	23	Utah	36	Idaho	41	37
	Nebraska	11	Rhode Island	21	Idaho	28	Nebraska	41	
39	Rhode Island	10	Montana	19	Rhode Island	28	Montana	33	39
40	Idaho	9	Nebraska	19	Nebraska	27	Nevada	32	40
	North Dakota	9	Idaho	15	Nevada	24	Maine	30	41
42	Utah	8	Hawaii	13	Hawaii	23	Alaska	28	42
	South Dakota	7	Nevada	13	New Hampshire	20	Hawaii	24	43
44	Alaska	6	Alaska	12	Delaware	19	Wyoming	23	44
	New Hampshire	6	North Dakota	11	Montana	19	North Dakota	21	45
46	Delaware	5	Delaware	10	Vermont	15	Rhode Island	21	
47	Hawaii	4	New Hampshire	10	Alaska	14	South Dakota	17	47
	Nevada	4	South Dakota	9	North Dakota	14	New Hampshire	16	48
	Vermont	4	Vermont	8	South Dakota	14	Delaware	14	49
	Wyoming	4	Wyoming	6	Wyoming	8	Vermont	14	

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961 and 1971.
EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1980 and 1987.

(a) Total includes the District of Columbia.

TABLE 14

NON-AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT, BY STATE
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960 (000)	State	1970 (000)	State	1980 (000)	State	1986 (000)	Rank
	U.S. Total	54,189	U.S. Total	70,880	U.S. Total(a)	90,733	U.S. Total	99,610	
1	New York	6,182	New York	7,156	California	9,760	California	11,272	1
2	California	4,896	California	6,946	New York	7,154	New York	7,906	2
3	Pennsylvania	3,715	Pennsylvania	4,352	Texas	5,845	Texas	6,581	3
4	Illinois	3,538	Illinois	4,346	Illinois	4,788	Pennsylvania	4,795	4
5	Ohio	3,147	Ohio	3,881	Pennsylvania	4,716	Illinois	4,777	5
6	Texas	2,540	Texas	3,625	Ohio	4,418	Ohio	4,475	6
7	Michigan	2,351	Michigan	3,005	Florida	3,519	Florida	4,590	7
8	New Jersey	2,017	New Jersey	2,606	Michigan	3,453	Michigan	3,639	8
9	Massachusetts	1,905	Massachusetts	2,262	New Jersey	3,047	New Jersey	3,487	9
10	Indiana	1,431	Florida	2,152	Massachusetts	2,677	Massachusetts	2,981	10
11	Missouri	1,350	Indiana	1,849	North Carolina	2,427	North Carolina	3,732	11
12	Florida	1,321	North Carolina	1,783	Indiana	2,227	Georgia	2,675	12
13	North Carolina	1,196	Missouri	1,668	Georgia	2,141	Virginia	2,557	13
14	Wisconsin	1,192	Georgia	1,558	Virginia	2,135	Indiana	2,228	14
15	Georgia	1,051	Wisconsin	1,530	Wisconsin	2,000	Missouri	3,132	15
16	Virginia	1,018	Virginia	1,519	Missouri	1,984	Wisconsin	2,015	16
17	Minnesota	959	Maryland	1,349	Minnesota	1,791	Maryland	1,951	17
18	Tennessee	925	Tennessee	1,328	Tennessee	1,767	Tennessee	1,929	18
19	Connecticut	915	Minnesota	1,315	Washington	1,622	Minnesota	1,891	19
20	Maryland	895	Connecticut	1,223	Maryland	1,614	Washington	1,770	20
21	Washington	813	Washington	1,079	Louisiana	1,556	Connecticut	1,602	21
22	Louisiana	790	Louisiana	1,034	Connecticut	1,403	Louisiana	1,524	22
23	Alabama	776	Alabama	1,011	Alabama	1,335	Alabama	1,461	23
24	Iowa	681	Kentucky	910	Colorado	1,255	Colorado	1,402	24
25	Kentucky	654	Iowa	883	Kentucky	1,204	Arizona	1,341	25
26	South Carolina	583	South Carolina	842	South Carolina	1,183	South Carolina	1,338	26
27	Oklahoma	577	Oklahoma	763	Oklahoma	1,142	Kentucky	1,277	27
28	Kansas	560	Colorado	750	Iowa	1,107	Oklahoma	1,140	28
29	Colorado	521	Oregon	711	Oregon	1,035	Iowa	1,077	29
30	Oregon	510	Kansas	679	Arizona	982	Oregon	1,057	30
31	WEST VIRGINIA	460	Mississippi	584	Kansas	949	Kansas	983	31
32	Mississippi	404	Arizona	547	Mississippi	824	Mississippi	849	32
33	Nebraska	384	Arkansas	536	Arkansas	761	Arkansas	814	33
34	Arkansas	368	WEST VIRGINIA	517	WEST VIRGINIA	630	Nebraska	654	34
35	Arizona	334	Nebraska	484	Nebraska	629	Utah	634	35
36	Rhode Island	292	Utah	359	Utah	568	WEST VIRGINIA	597	36
37	Maine	278	Rhode Island	349	New Mexico	476	New Mexico	528	37
38	Utah	265	Maine	332	Maine	422	New Hampshire	489	38
39	New Mexico	236	Hawaii	294	Nevada	408	Maine	477	39
40	New Hampshire	201	New Mexico	293	Hawaii	396	Nevada	469	40
41	Hawaii	189	New Hampshire	260	Rhode Island	395	Rhode Island	442	41
42	Montana	165	Delaware	217	New Hampshire	387	Hawaii	437	42
43	Idaho	155	Idaho	208	Idaho	328	Idaho	335	43
44	Delaware	154	Nevada	203	Montana	288	Delaware	303	44
45	South Dakota	143	Montana	199	Delaware	257	Montana	276	45
46	North Dakota	127	South Dakota	175	North Dakota	249	South Dakota	252	46
47	Vermont	108	North Dakota	164	South Dakota	238	North Dakota	249	47
48	Nevada	103	Vermont	148	Wyoming	225	Vermont	234	48
49	Wyoming	97	Wyoming	108	Vermont	202	Alaska	222	49
50	Alaska	57	Alaska	93	Alaska	184	Wyoming	199	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1979, p. 409.
EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS, November, 1980 and May, 1987. U.S. Department of Labor.

(a) Total includes the District of Columbia

Table 15

FULL-TIME EQUIVALENT STATE AND LOCAL NON-EDUCATIONAL EMPLOYEES, PER 10,000 INHABITANTS 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	169.8	U.S. Avg.	210.2	U.S. Avg.	251.9	U.S. Avg.	247.6	
1	New York	244.1	New York	311.1	Alaska	463.0	Alaska	434.6	1
2	Nevada	241.1	Wyoming	301.3	New York	341.9	New York	382.8	2
3	Wyoming	221.6	Nevada	295.6	Georgia	306.9	Wyoming	334.0	3
4	Massachusetts	217.7	Alaska	286.7	Wyoming	305.7	Nebraska	296.2	4
5	California	204.4	Hawaii	245.9	Nebraska	302.5	Georgia	293.3	5
6	Hawaii	204.3	Nebraska	242.5	Nevada	299.1	Hawaii	275.6	6
7	Nebraska	201.4	Massachusetts	238.4	Maryland	282.7	Louisiana	273.4	7
8	Montana	195.2	California	237.6	New Mexico	282.3	Nevada	272.2	8
9	Oregon	190.4	Montana	232.1	Hawaii	280.2	Washington	263.4	9
10	Washington	189.0	Washington	223.7	Louisiana	278.3	New Mexico	263.0	10
11	Florida	188.1	Tennessee	223.2	Massachusetts	274.8	Delaware	262.6	11
12	Louisiana	187.9	Georgia	222.7	Delaware	272.2	Massachusetts	261.1	12
13	Colorado	184.7	Idaho	220.7	Montana	271.6	Montana	259.6	13
14	Idaho	180.7	Kansas	216.7	Alabama	271.3	Maryland	256.2	14
15	New Hampshire	177.6	Louisiana	216.3	Tennessee	264.5	New Jersey	255.4	15
16	Rhode Island	176.2	New Mexico	212.0	New Jersey	263.9	Mississippi	255.2	16
17	Kansas	172.5	Colorado	208.7	Florida	263.8	Kansas	254.5	17
18	Vermont	168.5	South Dakota	208.4	Washington	259.1	Oklahoma	248.9	18
19	Connecticut	161.8	Florida	207.7	California	257.9	Colorado	248.8	19
20	Tennessee	161.3	Delaware	207.0	Rhode Island	256.5	South Carolina	248.7	20
21	Maine	161.0	Oregon	206.8	Mississippi	256.4	Alabama	248.5	21
22	Maryland	160.6	Mississippi	205.1	Oklahoma	253.7	Florida	248.0	22
23	Delaware	160.1	Maryland	200.4	Oregon	253.0	Tennessee	247.3	23
24	New Jersey	159.9	Wisconsin	200.2	Kansas	249.4	California	246.3	24
25	Oklahoma	159.6	Oklahoma	199.8	Colorado	247.8	Virginia	238.9	25
26	Arizona	159.1	Vermont	199.8	Minnesota	242.4	Oregon	238.6	26
27	New Mexico	159.0	Arizona	199.0	South Carolina	242.2	Iowa	238.3	27
28	Wisconsin	158.8	Alabama	197.7	WEST VIRGINIA	241.3	Minnesota	238.2	28
29	North Dakota	158.2	Rhode Island	195.3	Missouri	237.5	South Dakota	233.2	29
30	Michigan	157.4	Illinois	192.7	North Carolina	237.4	Connecticut	232.1	30
31	Minnesota	155.6	New Jersey	192.6	Idaho	237.1	North Dakota	230.9	31
32	South Dakota	155.2	Maine	192.4	Virginia	234.5	Wisconsin	229.5	32
33	Mississippi	154.6	WEST VIRGINIA	191.2	Arizona	233.9	Arizona	226.8	33
34	Illinois	153.9	Missouri	189.7	South Dakota	232.1	Illinois	226.6	34
35	Georgia	153.6	Iowa	185.9	Wisconsin	230.3	North Carolina	226.4	35
36	Iowa	150.4	North Dakota	185.4	North Dakota	226.6	Rhode Island	225.5	36
37	Missouri	150.1	Minnesota	185.0	Illinois	226.0	Missouri	224.3	37
38	Alabama	149.3	Connecticut	184.5	New Hampshire	223.6	Ohio	223.0	38
39	Alaska	149.1	Texas	182.5	Iowa	222.5	Idaho	221.0	39
40	Indiana	148.8	Pennsylvania	181.1	Texas	221.7	Texas	216.8	40
	Ohio	148.8	Virginia	180.2	Arkansas	221.2	Maine	216.2	41
42	Texas	148.4	Arkansas	179.2	Ohio	219.7	Arkansas	214.6	42
43	Utah	142.1	New Hampshire	178.9	Michigan	219.5	Michigan	214.4	43
44	Virginia	139.4	Michigan	177.5	Connecticut	218.7	WEST VIRGINIA	210.8	44
45	Pennsylvania	136.4	South Carolina	177.4	Indiana	211.4	New Hampshire	209.7	45
46	South Carolina	134.0	Ohio	172.9	Pennsylvania	211.1	Indiana	208.0	46
47	Arkansas	132.7	Utah	170.0	Vermont	203.6	Vermont	207.6	47
48	WEST VIRGINIA	128.0	Indiana	167.6	Maine	201.2	Kentucky	205.5	48
49	North Carolina	123.6	North Carolina	166.4	Utah	196.3	Pennsylvania	197.4	49
50	Kentucky	116.7	Kentucky	160.0	Kentucky	194.4	Utah	194.1	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961 and 1971.
PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT in 1980 and 1986, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table 16

AVERAGE MONTHLY EARNINGS OF FULL-TIME STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES, BY STATE
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$399	U.S. Avg.	$700	U.S. Avg.	$1,373	U.S. Avg.	$1,905	
1	Alaska	$610	Alaska	$1,078	Alaska	$2,065	Alaska	$3,275	1
	California	$506	Wisconsin	$885	California	$1,867	California	$2,583	2
3	Michigan	$464	California	$872	Michigan	$1,620	Michigan	$2,387	3
4	Illinois	$459	Nevada	$831	Colorado	$1,588	Minnesota	$2,348	4
	Nevada	$459	Michigan	$815	Wisconsin	$1,580	New York	$2,289	5
6	Hawaii	$449	Hawaii	$796	Minnesota	$1,577	New Jersey	$2,180	6
	New York	$449	Connecticut	$790	Washington	$1,526	Connecticut	$2,178	7
8	Arizona	$440	Minnesota	$781	Nevada	$1,498	Arizona	$2,170	8
	New Jersey	$440	New York	$775	Wyoming	$1,470	Maryland	$2,167	9
10	Connecticut	$432	Washington	$763	Illinois	$1,451	Washington	$2,167	
	Washington	$432	New Jersey	$759	New York	$1,432	Illinois	$2,165	11
12	Minnesota	$424	Oregon	$743	New Jersey	$1,415	Rhode Island	$2,140	12
13	Wisconsin	$423	Arizona	$738	Utah	$1,415	Colorado	$2,106	13
14	Oregon	$414	Utah	$736	Arizona	$1,405	Nevada	$2,093	14
15	Maryland	$409	Illinois	$735	Hawaii	$1,403	Massachusetts	$2,067	15
16	Indiana	$397	Massachusetts	$731	Indiana	$1,399	Wisconsin	$2,062	16
17	Ohio	$395	Maryland	$714	Oregon	$1,397	Oregon	$2,004	17
18	Massachusetts	$394	Colorado	$710	Pennsylvania	$1,379	Pennsylvania	$1,960	18
19	Rhode Island	$389	Ohio	$704	Iowa	$1,361	Wyoming	$1,954	19
20	Pennsylvania	$384	Vermont	$681	Idaho	$1,353	North Dakota	$1,931	20
21	Colorado	$382	Rhode Island	$673	Montana	$1,335	Ohio	$1,928	21
22	Montana	$380	New Hampshire	$671	Rhode Island	$1,326	Delaware	$1,890	22
	Wyoming	$380	Iowa	$670	North Dakota	$1,322	Hawaii	$1,884	23
24	Utah	$379	Pennsylvania	$664	Ohio	$1,321	Florida	$1,844	24
25	Delaware	$377	Virginia	$662	Kansas	$1,309	Iowa	$1,832	25
26	New Mexico	$374	Indiana	$659	Maryland	$1,308	Virginia	$1,824	26
27	Vermont	$365	Montana	$654	North Carolina	$1,298	Utah	$1,796	27
28	North Dakota	$357	Kansas	$651	Alabama	$1,280	Indiana	$1,788	28
29	Iowa	$356	Wyoming	$643	Texas	$1,272	Texas	$1,788	
30	Idaho	$348	Texas	$635	Maine	$1,266	Montana	$1,776	30
31	New Hampshire	$345	North Carolina	$633	Delaware	$1,265	Missouri	$1,766	31
32	Florida	$344	North Dakota	$632	New Mexico	$1,262	North Carolina	$1,744	32
33	Kansas	$342	South Dakota	$629	Vermont	$1,251	Vermont	$1,737	33
	Virginia	$342	New Mexico	$623	South Dakota	$1,244	New Mexico	$1,724	34
35	Missouri	$341	Virginia	$662	Florida	$1,242	New Hampshire	$1,721	35
36	Texas	$339	Missouri	$611	Virginia	$1,240	Nebraska	$1,698	36
37	Louisiana	$336	Louisiana	$608	South Carolina	$1,234	Kansas	$1,696	37
38	North Carolina	$335	Florida	$606	Missouri	$1,231	Alabama	$1,652	38
39	Oklahoma	$331	Georgia	$598	New Hampshire	$1,230	Georgia	$1,650	39
40	Nebraska	$330	Kentucky	$593	Connecticut	$1,214	Oklahoma	$1,642	40
41	Kentucky	$328	Oklahoma	$591	Massachusetts	$1,214	Maine	$1,635	41
42	Maine	$325	Nebraska	$586	Georgia	$1,193	Kentucky	$1,617	42
43	South Dakota	$323	Delaware	$582	Oklahoma	$1,190	South Carolina	$1,614	43
44	WEST VIRGINIA	$322	Alabama	$573	Kentucky	$1,179	Tennessee	$1,612	44
45	Tennessee	$304	South Carolina	$570	Tennessee	$1,172	Idaho	$1,607	45
46	Alabama	$303	Maine	$549	Louisiana	$1,163	WEST VIRGINIA	$1,606	46
47	Georgia	$284	Tennessee	$548	Nebraska	$1,151	Louisiana	$1,558	47
	South Carolina	$284	WEST VIRGINIA	$541	Arkansas	$1,097	South Dakota	$1,526	48
49	Arkansas	$280	Mississippi	$530	WEST VIRGINIA	$1,066	Arkansas	$1,504	49
50	Mississippi	$270	Arkansas	$512	Mississippi	$1,052	Mississippi	$1,356	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961.
PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT IN 1970, 1980 And 1986, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Note: Figures are for the month of October of each year.

Table 17

NUMBER OF VETERANS PER CAPITA, BY STATE
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	12.5	U.S. Avg.	13.6	U.S. Avg.	13.2	U.S. Avg.	11.6	
1	Kentucky	18.5	Wyoming	16.0	Rhode Island	16.1	Nevada	14.5	1
2	WEST VIRGINIA	18.0	Pennsylvania	15.1	Massachusetts	15.2	New Hampshire	13.9	2
3	Arkansas	16.5	California	15.0	New Jersey	15.0	Washington	13.6	3
4	Mississippi	16.1	WEST VIRGINIA	15.0	Connecticut	14.9	Oregon	13.4	4
5	North Dakota	15.8	Oregon	14.9	Maryland	14.9	Maine	13.2	5
6	Alabama	15.4	New Jersey	14.8	Washington	14.9	Pennsylvania	13.1	6
7	North Carolina	15.2	Massachusetts	14.5	Oregon	14.8	Montana	13.0	7
8	South Carolina	15.1	Connecticut	14.4	Pennsylvania	14.7	Alaska	12.8	8
9	Oklahoma	14.7	Ohio	14.4	Missouri	14.4	Connecticut	12.7	9
	Tennessee	14.7	Illinois	14.2	California	14.2	Florida	12.7	
11	South Dakota	14.5	Florida	14.1	New York	14.0	Missouri	12.7	
12	Vermont	14.4	Maine	14.1	Florida	13.9	Rhode Island	12.7	
13	Maine	14.1	Montana	14.0	Maine	13.8	Arizona	12.5	13
14	Idaho	13.9	New Hampshire	14.0	New Hampshire	13.8	Delaware	12.5	
15	Georgia	13.8	New York	14.0	Minnesota	13.7	Colorado	12.4	15
16	Iowa	13.6	Washington	14.0	Ohio	13.7	Ohio	12.4	
	Nebraska	13.6	Missouri	13.8	Oklahoma	13.7	Maryland	12.2	17
18	Pennsylvania	13.5	Rhode Island	13.8	Illinois	13.4	Massachusetts	12.1	18
19	Hawaii	13.3	Delaware	13.7	Delaware	13.3	Oklahoma	12.1	
20	Louisiana	13.1	Minnesota	13.7	Indiana	13.3	Indiana	12.0	20
	Utah	13.1	Idaho	13.6	Kansas	13.2	Minnesota	12.0	
22	Wyoming	13.0	New Mexico	13.6	Colorado	13.1	New Jersey	12.0	
23	Montana	12.9	Indiana	13.5	Iowa	12.9	Vermont	12.0	
	Virginia	12.9	Nevada	13.5	Nebraska	12.9	Wyoming	12.0	
25	Missouri	12.8	Iowa	13.3	Michigan	12.8	Iowa	11.9	25
	Texas	12.8	Kansas	13.3	Montana	12.6	Kansas	11.9	
	Wisconsin	12.8	Maryland	13.3	Wisconsin	12.6	Virginia	11.9	
28	Indiana	12.7	Wisconsin	13.3	Arizona	12.5	WEST VIRGINIA	11.9	
29	Kansas	12.6	Arizona	13.2	Vermont	12.5	Wisconsin	11.9	
	Michigan	12.6	Michigan	13.2	Virginia	12.4	Nebraska	11.8	30
	Minnesota	12.6	Oklahoma	13.2	Arkansas	12.0	Idaho	11.7	31
32	New Hampshire	12.5	Colorado	13.1	WEST VIRGINIA	12.0	New Mexico	11.6	32
33	Massachusetts	12.3	South Dakota	12.9	Nevada	11.9	Michigan	11.5	33
	Rhode Island	12.3	Vermont	12.8	Tennessee	11.8	Arkansas	11.3	34
35	New York	12.1	Utah	12.5	Georgia	11.7	South Dakota	11.3	
36	Illinois	12.0	Nebraska	12.4	Texas	11.7	Illinois	11.2	36
	Ohio	12.0	Tennessee	12.3	Kentucky	11.3	California	11.1	37
	Oregon	12.0	Texas	12.2	Idaho	11.1	Tennessee	11.1	
39	New Mexico	11.9	Kentucky	12.0	Alabama	10.8	North Carolina	10.9	39
40	Colorado	11.2	Alabama	11.8	South Carolina	10.8	New York	10.8	40
41	Connecticut	11.0	Louisiana	11.8	Louisiana	10.7	Texas	10.8	
	New Jersey	11.0	North Dakota	11.7	South Dakota	10.7	North Dakota	10.7	42
	Washington	11.0	Virginia	11.7	North Carolina	10.6	South Carolina	10.5	43
44	Maryland	10.9	Arkansas	11.2	New Mexico	10.5	Alabama	10.2	44
45	Delaware	10.3	North Carolina	10.6	Utah	10.4	Kentucky	10.1	45
46	Arizona	9.8	Georgia	10.6	Alaska	10.0	Louisiana	9.8	46
47	California	9.6	South Carolina	10.2	Hawaii	9.6	Hawaii	9.7	47
48	Florida	8.2	Alaska	10.0	Mississippi	9.6	Utah	9.4	48
49	Nevada	8.1	Mississippi	9.8	Wyoming	9.6	Georgia	9.2	49
50	Alaska	7.1	Hawaii	8.8	North Dakota	9.2	Mississippi	9.1	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961 and 1970.
ADMINISTRATOR OF VETERANS AFFAIRS, Annual Report, 1980 and 1985.

Table 18

VETERANS BENEFITS: COMPENSATION AND PENSIONS, BY STATE
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Total	$3,315	U.S. Total	$5,114	U.S. Total	$10,701	U.S. Total	$13,656	
1	New York	$285	California	$439	California	$919	California	$1,107	1
2	California	$279	New York	$408	Texas	$811	New York	$943	2
3	Pennsylvania	$210	Texas	$312	New York	$740	Texas	$934	3
4	Texas	$180	Pennsylvania	$304	Florida	$717	Florida	$908	4
5	Ohio	$164	Ohio	$241	Pennsylvania	$543	Pennsylvania	$693	5
6	Illinois	$140	Florida	$232	Ohio	$428	Ohio	$559	6
7	Massachusetts	$127	Illinois	$199	Massachusetts	$354	Massachusetts	$453	7
8	Michigan	$120	Michigan	$181	Michigan	$333	North Carolina	$448	8
9	Florida	$114	Massachusetts	$180	North Carolina	$327	Georgia	$423	9
10	New Jersey	$99	New Jersey	$150	Georgia	$319	Michigan	$414	10
11	Missouri	$84	North Carolina	$132	Illinois	$308	Virginia	$409	11
12	Indiana	$72	Missouri	$126	Virginia	$296	Illinois	$391	12
	North Carolina	$72	Virginia	$120	New Jersey	$271	New Jersey	$352	13
14	Tennessee	$70	Georgia	$119	Tennessee	$249	Tennessee	$348	14
15	Kentucky	$69	Tennessee	$113	Missouri	$232	Missouri	$308	15
16	Minnesota	$68	Indiana	$106	Alabama	$222	Oklahoma	$303	16
17	Alabama	$65	Minnesota	$103	Oklahoma	$220	Alabama	$302	17
	Georgia	$65	Wisconsin	$103	Louisiana	$211	Kentucky	$264	18
	Wisconsin	$65	Alabama	$102	Kentucky	$206	Louisiana	$263	19
20	Virginia	$60	Kentucky	$101	Washington	$200	Washington	$260	20
21	Louisiana	$59	Louisiana	$101	Indiana	$194	Arkansas	$250	21
22	Oklahoma	$57	Oklahoma	$93	Arkansas	$191	Wisconsin	$249	22
23	Washington	$54	Washington	$90	Wisconsin	$181	Indiana	$240	23
24	Iowa	$48	Arkansas	$84	Mississippi	$175	Mississippi	$238	24
25	Arkansas	$47	Maryland	$78	Minnesota	$169	Maryland	$231	25
26	Mississippi	$45	Mississippi	$74	Maryland	$168	Minnesota	$221	26
	WEST VIRGINIA	$45	WEST VIRGINIA	$69	Arizona	$159	South Carolina	$204	27
28	Maryland	$43	Iowa	$68	South Carolina	$157	Oregon	$172	28
29	Kansas	$40	South Carolina	$66	Colorado	$132	WEST VIRGINIA	$163	29
30	Connecticut	$39	Oregon	$60	Oregon	$127	Arizona	$161	30
31	South Carolina	$37	Colorado	$58	WEST VIRGINIA	$118	Colorado	$159	31
32	Colorado	$34	Connecticut	$58	Iowa	$110	Iowa	$134	32
	Oregon	$34	Kansas	$58	Connecticut	$105	Connecticut	$123	33
34	Arizona	$27	Arizona	$56	Kansas	$100	Kansas	$121	34
35	Nebraska	$24	New Mexico	$37	New Mexico	$90	Maine	$100	35
36	Maine	$21	Nebraska	$36	Maine	$76	New Mexico	$97	36
37	New Mexico	$18	Maine	$34	Nebraska	$67	Nebraska	$82	37
	Rhode Island	$18	Rhode Island	$28	Rhode Island	$57	Rhode Island	$77	38
39	Idaho	$13	New Hampshire	$21	New Hampshire	$53	New Hampshire	$73	39
	Montana	$13	Utah	$20	Utah	$42	Utah	$59	40
	Utah	$13	Idaho	$19	Idaho	$40	Idaho	$54	41
42	New Hampshire	$12	Montana	$19	Montana	$38	Montana	$50	42
	South Dakota	$12	South Dakota	$19	Nevada	$37	South Dakota	$49	43
44	North Dakota	$10	North Dakota	$13	South Dakota	$37	Nevada	$47	44
45	Vermont	$8	Vermont	$12	Hawaii	$31	Hawaii	$43	45
46	Delaware	$6	Delaware	$11	Vermont	$28	Vermont	$40	46
	Hawaii	$6	Hawaii	$11	Delaware	$24	North Dakota	$32	47
	Wyoming	$6	Nevada	$11	North Dakota	$23	Delaware	$30	48
49	Nevada	$4	Wyoming	$9	Wyoming	$18	Wyoming	$24	49
50	Alaska	$1	Alaska	$3	Alaska	$9	Alaska	$15	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961, AND 1971.
"ANNUAL REPORT" 1980 AND 1985, Administrator of Veterans Affairs.

POLITICAL AND GOVERNMENTAL FEATURES

The tables in this section include data on the percent of the country's population voting for President, and on characteristics of the office of governor, state legislatures, and state supreme courts.

The percentage of voting-age population casting votes for President in the election years of 1972, 1976, 1980, and 1984 is found in Table 1. Table 1 reports the last four presidential election years. Of the years selected, 1972 had the highest national voter turnout with 55.5%, while 1980 showed the lowest voter turnout with 52.6%. The U.S. average rose slightly to 53.1% in the 1984 election. In the elections of 1972 and 1976, West Virginia ranked thirteenth and twenty-fifth, but dropped to thirtieth position in 1980, although in all years West Virginia was above the national average. In the 1984 election, the State dropped further in rank to a tie with Maryland at thirty-fourth, below the U.S. average.

Table 2 shows data on the office of governor. As of January, 1988, Democratic governors held more than a two-to-one ratio (27-23) of governorships. The term of office is four years in all but three states. The table also discloses the maximum number of consecutive terms a governor may serve. Seven states do not allow a governor to impose a line item veto (veto of single expenditure items within a budget bill). The governor of North Carolina has no veto power.

The last column lists the number of administrative officials that can be appointed by a governor either with or without confirmation from the legislature. The Council of State Governments, (the source for this table) lists eighteen administrative officials for West Virginia including: adjutant general, banking, civil rights, commerce, corrections, emergency management, employment services, finance, health, highways, insurance, labor, natural resources, planning, public utility regulation, public welfare, taxation, and state police.

The total number of legislative members and the party percentage for each legislative body is reported in Table 3. Minnesota has the largest number of Senators, 67, while New Hampshire has the largest number of representatives with 400 House members. West Virginia's Senate is composed of thirty-four members, with 79.4% of that number being Democrats. Seventy-eight percent of its 100 House members are Democrats.

Table 4 shows the state legislative apportionment of the Senate and House, for the latest year in which reapportionment took place, and the percent deviation between the actual population represented by each legislator and the average population per seat. The deviation percentages move above and below zero; the total range is a combination of the deviations above and below point zero.

The method of appointment and the term of office for state supreme courts (state courts of last resort) for 1986 is found in Table 5. The majority of the judges are chosen on an at-large basis rather than by district. Most of the chief justices in American states are selected by the court. Some are appointed by the governor, sometimes with the consent of the Senate. Others are elected on a partisan or non-partisan ballot to the chief position.

TABLE 1

PERCENT OF VOTING-AGE POPULATION CASTING VOTES FOR PRESIDENT: 1972, 1976, 1980 and 1984

Rank	State	1972	State	1976	State	1980	State	1984	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	55.5%	U.S. Avg.	53.5%	U.S. Avg.	52.6%	U.S. Avg.	53.1%	
1	South Dakota	68.8%	Minnesota	71.5%	Minnesota	70.1%	Minnesota	68.4%	1
2	Utah	68.5%	Utah	68.4%	Idaho	67.8%	Montana	65.4%	2
3	Minnesota	68.4%	North Dakota	67.2%	South Dakota	67.3%	Maine	64.6%	3
4	North Dakota	67.9%	Wisconsin	66.5%	Wisconsin	67.3%	Wisconsin	63.6%	4
5	Montana	67.7%	South Dakota	64.1%	Montana	65.0%	North Dakota	63.0%	5
6	Connecticut	66.3%	Maine	63.7%	North Dakota	64.7%	South Dakota	63.0%	
7	New Hampshire	64.2%	Montana	63.3%	Maine	64.6%	Iowa	62.2%	7
8	Washington	63.8%	Iowa	63.1%	Utah	64.4%	Oregon	61.6%	8
9	Wyoming	63.6%	Connecticut	62.8%	Iowa	62.8%	Utah	61.5%	9
10	Iowa	63.3%	Massachusetts	61.7%	Oregon	61.3%	Connecticut	60.9%	10
11	Idaho	63.2%	Oregon	61.3%	Connecticut	61.0%	Vermont	59.8%	11
12	Illinois	62.7%	Idaho	60.7%	Michigan	59.9%	Idaho	59.7%	12
13	WEST VIRGINIA	62.4%	Indiana	60.1%	Massachusetts	59.0%	Alaska	59.6%	13
14	Delaware	62.3%	Washington	59.8%	Missouri	58.7%	Washington	58.4%	14
15	Massachusetts	62.0%	Rhode Island	59.7%	Rhode Island	58.6%	Ohio	57.9%	15
	Rhode Island	62.0%	Illinois	59.4%	Illinois	57.7%	Michigan	57.7%	16
	Wisconsin	62.0%	Colorado	58.8%	Vermont	57.7%	Massachusetts	57.4%	17
18	Oregon	61.7%	Kansas	58.8%	Indiana	57.6%	Missouri	57.4%	
19	Maine	61.1%	Michigan	58.8%	Alaska	57.4%	Illinois	57.1%	19
	Vermont	61.1%	Wyoming	58.6%	Washington	57.4%	Kansas	57.1%	
21	Indiana	60.8%	New Jersey	57.7%	New Hampshire	57.2%	New Jersey	56.4%	21
22	Colorado	60.1%	Missouri	57.3%	Kansas	56.7%	Indiana	55.9%	22
23	New Jersey	60.0%	New Hampshire	57.3%	Nebraska	56.6%	Nebraska	55.8%	23
24	California	59.9%	Delaware	57.2%	Colorado	55.8%	Delaware	55.6%	24
25	Michigan	59.5%	WEST VIRGINIA	57.2%	Ohio	55.4%	Rhode Island	55.6%	
26	Kansas	59.0%	Nebraska	56.2%	New Jersey	54.9%	Colorado	55.2%	26
27	New Mexico	57.6%	Vermont	55.7%	Delaware	54.6%	Louisiana	54.6%	27
28	Missouri	57.5%	Ohio	55.1%	Wyoming	53.3%	Pennsylvania	53.9%	28
	Ohio	57.5%	Oklahoma	54.9%	Louisiana	53.1%	Wyoming	53.3%	29
30	Oklahoma	56.9%	Pennsylvania	54.2%	WEST VIRGINIA	52.8%	New Hampshire	53.0%	30
31	New York	56.6%	New Mexico	53.4%	Oklahoma	52.2%	Oklahoma	52.3%	31
32	Pennsylvania	56.1%	Arkansas	51.1%	Pennsylvania	51.9%	Mississippi	52.2%	32
33	Nebraska	56.0%	New York	50.7%	Mississippi	51.8%	Arkansas	51.9%	33
34	Nevada	50.9%	California	50.4%	Arkansas	51.5%	Maryland	51.4%	34
35	Hawaii	50.4%	Maryland	49.3%	New Mexico	50.7%	WEST VIRGINIA	51.4%	
36	Maryland	50.3%	Florida	49.2%	Maryland	50.0%	New York	50.9%	36
37	Florida	49.3%	Louisiana	48.7%	Kentucky	49.9%	Kentucky	50.8%	37
38	Kentucky	48.4%	Tennessee	48.7%	California	49.0%	New Mexico	50.7%	38
39	Alaska	48.3%	Alaska	48.1%	Alabama	48.7%	Virginia	50.6%	39
40	Arizona	48.1%	Kentucky	48.0%	Florida	48.7%	Alabama	49.8%	40
41	Arkansas	48.1%	Mississippi	48.0%	Tennessee	48.7%	California	49.8%	
42	Virginia	45.5%	Virginia	47.0%	New York	48.0%	Tennessee	49.0%	42
43	Texas	45.4%	Hawaii	46.7%	Virginia	47.6%	Florida	48.4%	43
44	Mississippi	45.0%	Alabama	46.3%	Texas	44.9%	North Carolina	47.3%	44
45	Louisiana	44.3%	Texas	46.3%	Arizona	44.5%	Texas	47.3%	
46	Tennessee	43.6%	Arizona	46.1%	Hawaii	43.6%	Arizona	45.5%	46
47	Alabama	43.4%	Nevada	44.2%	North Carolina	43.4%	Hawaii	44.3%	47
	North Carolina	43.4%	North Carolina	43.0%	Georgia	41.2%	Georgia	42.0%	48
49	South Carolina	38.6%	Georgia	42.0%	Nevada	40.5%	Nevada	41.8%	49
50	Georgia	37.9%	South Carolina	40.3%	South Carolina	40.1%	South Carolina	40.5%	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1980 and 1985.
"COMMERCE NEWS", April, 1986. U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 2

THE GOVERNOR'S OFFICE, 1988

State	Political Party	Term	Limit on Consecutive Terms	Item Veto §	Number of Administrative Officials Appointed by Governor(a)
Alabama	R	4	2	Yes	18
Alaska	D	4	2	Yes	17
Arizona	D	4	2	Yes	17
Arkansas	D	4		Yes	16
California	R	4		Yes	29
Colorado	D	4		Yes	15
Connecticut	D	4		Yes	24
Delaware	R	4	2(b)	Yes	15
Florida	R	4	2	Yes	15
Georgia	D	4	2	Yes	10
Hawaii	D	4	2(c)	Yes	17
Idaho	D	4		Yes	18
Illinois	R	4		Yes	25
Indiana	R	4	2	No	22
Iowa	R	4		Yes	23
Kansas	R	4	2	Yes	16
Kentucky	D	4	(d)	Yes	21
Louisiana	D	4	2	Yes	25
Maine	R	4	2	No	17
Maryland	D	4	2	Yes	20
Massachusetts	D	4		Yes	28
Michigan	D	4		Yes	17
Minnesota	DFL	4		Yes	25
Mississippi	D	4	(d)	Yes	10
Missouri	R	4	2(b)	Yes	13
Montana	D	4		Yes	16
Nebraska	R	4	2	Yes	15
Nevada	D	4	2	No	17
New Hampshire	R	2		No	23
New Jersey	R	4	2	Yes	23
New Mexico	R	4	(d)	Yes	22
New York	D	4		Yes	23
North Carolina	R	4	2(b)	No	24
North Dakota	D	4		Yes	12
Ohio	D	4	2	Yes	20
Oklahoma	R	4	2	Yes	15
Oregon	D	4	2	Yes	12
Pennsylvania	D	4	2	Yes	22
Rhode Island	R	2		No	18
South Carolina	R	4	2	Yes	5
South Dakota	R	4	2	Yes	15
Tennessee	D	4	2	Yes	20
Texas	R	4		Yes	9
Utah	R	4		Yes	16
Vermont	D	2		No	22
Virginia	D	4	(d)	Yes	32
Washington	D	4		Yes	18
WEST VIRGINIA	R	4	2	Yes	18
Wisconsin	R	4		Yes	15
Wyoming	D	4		Yes	21

Source: BOOK OF THE STATES, 1988-89, Council of State Governments, Lexington, Kentucky.

§ Item veto refers to appropriation expenditures. Governor has no veto power in N.C.

(a) Includes those officials appointed by the governor either with or without confirmation from the legislature. Excludes Lieutenant Governor.

(b) Absolute two-term limitation, but not necessarily consecutive.

(c) Restriction became effective with Nov. 1987 election. Incumbent allowed to serve out three consecutive terms.

(d) Successive terms forbidden.

TABLE 3

STATE LEGISLATURES: TOTAL MEMBERSHIP AND PERCENTAGE DEMOCRATIC AND REPUBLICAN: 1987

	SENATE			HOUSE		
State	Members	% Democratic	% Republican	Members	% Democratic	% Republican
Alabama	35	85.7%	14.3%	105	84.8%	15.2%
Alaska	20	40.0%	60.0%	40	60.0%	40.0%
Arizona	30	36.7%	63.3%	60	40.0%	60.0%
Arkansas	35	88.6%	11.4%	100	91.0%	9.0%
California	40	57.5%	37.5%	80	55.0%	45.0%
Colorado	35	28.6%	71.4%	65	38.5%	61.5%
Connecticut	36	69.4%	30.6%	151	60.9%	39.1%
Delaware	21	61.9%	38.1%	41	46.3%	53.7%
Florida	40	62.5	37.5%	120	62.5%	37.5%
Georgia	56	82.1	17.9%	180	85.0%	15.0
Hawaii	25	80.0%	20.0%	51	78.4%	19.6%
Idaho	42	38.1%	61.9%	84	23.8%	76.2%
Illinois	59	52.5%	47.5%	118	56.8%	43.2%
Indiana	50	38.0%	60.0%	100	48.0%	52.0%
Iowa	50	60.0%	40.0	100	58.0%	42.0
Kansas	40	40.0	60.0	125	40.8	59.2
Kentucky	38	76.3%	23.7%	100	73.0%	26.0%
Louisiana (1983)	39	87.2%	12.8%	105	77.1%	21.0%
Maine	35	57.1%	42.9%	151	57.0%	43.0
Maryland	47	85.1	14.9%	141	87.9%	12.1%
Massachusetts	40	80.0%	20.0%	160	79.4%	20.6%
Michigan	38	47.4%	52.6%	110	58.2%	41.8%
Minnesota(1)	67	70.1%	29.9%	134	61.9%	38.1%
Mississippi(1983	52	94.3%	5.7%	122	90.4%	7.7%
Missouri	34	61.8%	38.2%	163	68.1%	31.9%
Montana	50	50.0%	50.0%	100	49.0%	51.0%
Nebraska(2)	49	Unicameral Legislature			Nonpartisan Election	
Nevada	21	42.9%	57.1%	42	69.0%	31.0%
New Hampshire	24	33.3%	66.7%	400	33.0%	67.0%
New Jersey(1983)	40	57.5%	42.5%	80	37.5%	61.3%
New Mexico	42	50.0%	50.0%	70	67.1%	32.9%
New York	61	41.0%	59.0%	150	61.3%	37.3%
North Carolina	50	80.0%	20.0%	120	70.0%	30.0%
North Dakota	53	50.9%	49.1%	106	42.5%	57.5%
Ohio	33	45.5%	54.5%	99	60.6%	39.4%
Oklahoma	48	62.5%	35.4%	101	69.3	30.7%
Oregon	30	56.7%	43.3%	60	51.7%	48.3%
Pennsylvania	50	46.0%	52.0%	203	50.7%	49.3%
Rhode Island	50	76.0%	24.0%	100	80.0%	20.0%
South Carolina	46	78.3%	21.7%	124	74.2%	25.8%
South Dakota	35	31.4%	68.6%	70	31.4%	68.6%
Tennessee	33	69.7%	30.3%	99	61.6%	38.4%
Texas	31	80.6%	19.4%	150	62.7%	37.3%
Utah	29	27/6%	72.4%	75	36.0%	64.0%
Vermont	30	63.3%	36.7%	150	49.3%	50.0%
Virginia (1983)	40	77.5%	22.5%	100	65.0%	33.0%
Washington	49	51.0	49.0%	98	62.2%	37.8%
WEST VIRGINIA	34	79.4%	20.6%	100	78.0%	22.0%
Wisconsin	33	60.6%	33.0%	99	54.5%	45.5%
Wyoming	30	36.7%	63.3%	64	31.2%	68.8%

Source: STATE ELECTIVE OFFICIALS AND THE LEGISLATURES - 1987-88, Council of State Governments, Lexington, Kentucky.

Note: Figures are as of January, 1987, unless otherwise indicated.
(1) Democrat-Farmer-Labor; Independent-Republican.
(2) Nonpartisan election in Nebraska consists of a single legislative chamber (unicameral).

TABLE 4

STATE LEGISLATIVE APPORTIONMENT: SENATE AND HOUSE

State	Senate				House			
	Year	% Deviation(a) +	-	Range	Year	% Deviation(a) +	-	Range
Alabama	1972	0.7	0.7	1.40	1972	1.1	1.2	2.30
Alaska	1984	3.03	9.87	12.90	1984	4.72	7.88	12.60
Arizona	1972	3.85	4.55	8.40	1972	0.4	0.4	0.80
Arkansas	1981	4.79	4.36	9.15	1981	4.98	4.17	9.15
California	1982	1.78	1.29	3.07	1973	1.9	1.9	3.84
Colorado	1982	2.03	1.95	3.98	1982	2.70	2.24	4.94
Connecticut	1981	2.40	1.51	3.91	1981	4.41	3.93	8.44
Delaware	1981	1.40	0.9	2.30	1981	2.6	2.3	4.90
Florida	1980	0.52	0.53	1.05	1980	0.21	0.25	0.46
Georgia	1982	4.99	4.95	9.94	1982	4.93	4.97	9.90
Hawaii	1984	4.56	5.07	9.63	1984	4.90	4.97	9.87
Idaho	1984	5.67	4.00	9.67	1984	5.67	4.00	9.67
Illinois	1983	0.96	0.83	1.79	1983	1.39	0.99	2.38
Indiana	1981	1.70	1.60	3.30	1982	1.00	1.00	2.00
Iowa	1981	0.39	0.32	0.71	1981	0.99	0.79	1.78
Kansas	1979	3.10	3.40	6.50	1979	4.80	4.90	9.70
Kentucky	1982	3.80	3.72	7.52	1982	6.48	6.99	13.47
Louisiana	1981	3.82	4.62	8.44	1981	4.81	4.89	9.70
Maine	1983	3.19	4.96	8.15	1983	5.81	5.08	10.89
Maryland	1982	4.90	4.96	9.86	1982	4.90	4.96	9.86
Massachusetts	1976	2.86	3.35	6.21	1976	9.75	10.24	19.99
Michigan	1982	8.13	8.11	16.24	1982	8.19	8.15	16.34
Minnesota	1982	1.81	1.60	3.41	1982	1.96	1.97	3.93
Mississippi	1981	2.41	2.19	4.60	1981	2.43	2.47	4.50
Missouri	1971	4.90	4.90	9.80	1971	1.20	1.30	2.50
Montana	1983	5.14	5.04	10.18	1983	5.78	5.16	10.94
Nebraska			Unicameral Legislature					
Nevada	1981	4.19	4.97	9.16	1981	4.16	4.02	8.18
New Hampshire	1982	3.30	4.00	7.25	1982	25.30	19.30	44.60
New Jersey	1981	5.13	2.57	7.70	1981	5.13	2.57	7.70
New Mexico	1984	4.89	4.94	9.83	1982	4.88	4.99	9.87
New York	1982	2.50	2.70	5.20	1982	3.30	4.84	8.14
North Carolina	1984	4.83	4.96	9.79	1984	4.98	5.00	9.98
North Dakota	1981	4.04	5.76	9.80	1981	4.99	4.67	9.66
Ohio	1981	4.45	4.43	8.88	1981	4.99	4.67	8.66
Oklahoma	1981	2.94	2.66	4.60	1981	5.07	4.85	9.92
Oregon	1981	2.62	1.10	3.72	1981	2.75	2.59	5.34
Pennsylvania	1981	0.98	0.96	1.94	1981	4.99	4.67	9.66
Rhode Island	1983	2.50	2.50	5.00	1981	5.07	4.85	9.92
South Carolina	1984	4.97	4.99	9.96	1981	2.75	2.59	9.34
South Dakota	1983	6.91	6.48	13.39	1983	6.91	6.48	13.39
Tennessee	1984	5.23	4.76	9.99	1984	2.81	1.77	4.58
Texas	1983	0.87	0.91	1.78	1983	4.98	4.97	9.15
Utah	1981	2.15	3.08	5.23	1981	3.67	3.93	7.60
Vermont	1982	8.32	7.76	16.08	1982	9.69	9.64	19.33
Virginia	1981	4.35	6.30	10.65	1982	2.72	2.39	5.11
Washington	1972	0.90	0.70	0.98	1972	0.90	0.70	0.98
WEST VIRGINIA	1982	4.96	4.01	8.97	1982	5.63	4.33	9.96
Wisconsin	1983	0.38	0.67	1.05	1983	0.87	0.85	1.72
Wyoming	1981	39.89	24.00	63.89	1981	29.43	60.15	89.58

Source: 1984 Survey conducted by the COUNCIL OF STATE GOVERNMENTS, Lexington, Kentucky.

(a) Percent deviation is actual vs. average population per seat.

TABLE 5

METHOD OF APPOINTMENT AND TERM OF OFFICE FOR STATE COURTS OF LAST RESORT

State	Justices Chosen		Method of Selection of Chief Justice(a)	Term of Service As Chief Justice
	At Large	District		
Alabama	X		Popular Election	6
Alaska	X		By Court	3
Arizona	X		By Court	5
Arkansas	X		Popular Election	8
California	X		G/RR	12
Colorado	X		By Court	Pleasure of Court
Connecticut	X		G/L	8
Delaware	X		G(S)	12
Florida		X	By Court	6
Georgia	X		By Court	6
Hawaii	X		G(S)	10
Idaho	X		(b)	Remainder of Term
Illinois		X	By Court	3
Indiana	X		(c)	5
Iowa	X		By Court	Remainder of Term
Kansas	X		(d)	Remainder of Term
Kentucky		X	By Court	4
Louisiana		X	(e)	Remainder of Term
Maine	X		G(S)	7
Maryland		X	DG	Remainder of Term
Massachusetts	X		G	To Age 70
Michigan	X		By Court	2
Minnesota	X		Popular Election	6
Mississippi		X	(e)	Remainder of Term
Missouri	X		By Court	Fixed By Court
Montana	X		Popular Election	8
Nebraska		X	G	6
Nevada	X		(f)	Remainder of Term
New Hampshire	X		G/(EC)	To Age 70
New Jersey	X		G(S)	7 (reapp. to age 70)
New Mexico	X		By Court	2
New York	X		G(S)	14 (reapp. to age 70)
North Carolina	X		Popular Election	8
North Dakota	X		(g)	5
Ohio	X		Popular Election	6
Oklahoma		X	By Court	2
Oregon		X	By Court	6
Pennsylvania	X		(e)	Remainder of Term
Rhode Island	X		L	Life
South Carolina	X		(h)	10
South Dakota		X	By Court	4
Tennessee	X		By Court	18 Months
Texas	X		Popular Election	6
Utah	X		(i)	Remainder of Term
Vermont	X		G(S)	6
Virginia	X		(e)	Remainder of Term
Washington	X		(i)	Remainder of Term
West Virginia	X		By Court	Pleasure of Court
Wisconsin	X		(j)	Remainder of Term
Wyoming	X		By Court	Pleasure of Court

Source: THE BOOK OF THE STATES, 1986-87, Council of State Governments, Lexington, Kentucky.

(a)	E	Popular Election.
	G/RR	Initially appointed by governor; subsequently must run on record for retention.
	G/L	Nominated by governor; appointed by legislature.
	G(S)	Appointed by governor with consent of Senate.
	DG	Designated by Governor.
	G	Appointed by Governor.
	G/(EC)	Appointed by Governor with consent of Executive Council.
	L	By Legislature.

(b) Justice with shortest remaining term.
(c) Selected by judicial nominating from Supreme Court members.
(d) By seniority of service. If two or more qualify, then senior in age.
(e) By seniority of service.
(f) By seniority of service. If two or more qualify, then determined by lot.
(g) By Supreme and District Court judges.
(h) Joint public vote of General Assembly.
(i) Justice with shortest term.
(j) By seniority of service. If two or more qualify, then justice with least number of years remaining in term.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURES

State and local general revenue per capita is reported in Table 1. The figures include monies received from the federal government, such as federal aid/revenue sharing; taxes imposed by state and local governments; property, license fees; etc. The table indicates the relative effort each state and local government makes in obtaining funds on a per capita basis. In 1960, West Virginia's rank was forty-second, and rose to thirty-fifth and thirty-fourth, respectively in 1970 and 1980. However, in 1986, the State's rank dropped to thirty-eighth.

Table 2 shows the per capita state and local general revenue from the states' own sources. Federal aid/revenue sharing funds are excluded. Alaska's high figure is due in large part to revenue received from the oil industry. West Virginia's rank in 1960 was forty-third, forty-sixth in 1970, and thirty-ninth in 1980. The national average in 1986 was $2,191, while West Virginia's total figure was $1,738, some $453 per capita below the national average.

Table 3 indicates state and local general revenue from own sources per $1,000 of personal income. These figures provide a valuable measure of the economic capacity of each state. For every $1,000 earned by an individual in the U.S., $160 went to state and local governments in 1986. West Virginia's ranking has trended upward since 1960, when it was thirty-fifth. In 1986, West Virginia was the seventeenth state, in the U.S., with a figure of $169 per $1,000 of personal income, slightly above the U.S. average.

A ranking of states by per capita state and local taxes, is found in Table 4. West Virginia's state and local tax collections increased from $796 in 1980 to $1,214, per capita, in 1986. This was an increase of $407 per capita or 51% during the five-year period. The U.S. average for 1986 is $1,547 per capita. West Virginia's taxes are 27% lower than the national average and the State ranked forty-first among the states in 1986. Of the surrounding states only Kentucky is lower, ranking forty-fifth at $1,103. In 1960, West Virginia ranked forty-first at $145 per capita.

Table 5 reveals the state and local tax effort for each state. Tax effort is a measure of the extent to which a state uses the tax sources available, relative to a national average (100%). It is calculated by comparing actual taxes (revenues) collected to its tax capacity (ability of a state and its local governments to raise revenues from the tax sources available to them). West Virginia's tax effort in 1960 stood at 101, or 1% above the national average. In 1971, the State's effort dropped to 91, and by 1980 it had dropped to 82, some 18% below the national average. In 1985, West Virginia's effort increased to 103.

Revenue from state income tax (individual and corporate) as a percent of total state taxes is shown in Table 6. Since 1960, most states use an individual and a corporate income tax as a valuable source of state revenues. In 1986, the

U.S. average was over thirty-seven percent, while in 1960 the average collected was over eighteen percent. West Virginia collected a little over thirty percent of its funds from personal and corporation income taxes, an increase of 7% since 1980. Again, the State's rank rose from thirty-ninth in 1970 to thirty-second in 1986. No individual or corporate income tax is levied in the following states: Nevada, Texas, Washington and Wyoming. Florida and South Dakota levy only a corporate income tax.

Table 7 reports the percent of state and local general revenue that states receive from the federal government. The more sparsely populated states and southern states receive more funds from the federal government than the larger, more densely populated states. The percentage of state-local general revenue received from the federal government has been declining since its highpoint in 1980. The national average was the highest in 1980 at 21.7 percent, but dropped to 17.6 percent in 1986. West Virginia's share in receiving federal funds in 1986 was 22.7 percent, with a ranking of seventh. The state ranked first in 1970 and seventh in 1980.

Table 8 indicates the direct general expenditures per capita of state and local governments for all purposes excluding insurance trust, liquor store and public utility expenditures. Spending by state and local governments in West Virginia has risen considerably from $217 per capita in 1960, to $2,158 in 1986, or by 894 percent. The national average during the same period rose by 773 percent. Compared to the national average of $2,516 per capita, West Virginia's spending is $358 less per person. The State's rank dropped from thirty-first in 1970 to thirty-eighth in 1986.

Table 9 shows the amount spent by state and local governments for each $1,000 of personal income. Spending in West Virginia dropped from the 1980 figure of $214 to $210 per $1,000 of personal income in 1986. The national average in 1986 was $183 or $27 lower than West Virginia's total.

Total state and local debt (both long-term and short-term) per capita is listed in Table 10. This table shows that a rapid growth in debt has taken place, especially since 1970. The national average in 1970 was $454, while in 1986 the national debt average was $2,733 per person. In 1986 West Virginia's per capita debt was $2,612, with a ranking of twenty-seventh in the nation. The State's rank in 1970 was thirty-seventh with a per capita debt of $487. Alaska had the largest per capita debt at $22,220, while Idaho had the lowest per capita debt at $1,241.

TABLE 1

STATE AND LOCAL GENERAL REVENUE PER CAPITA
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$281	U.S. Avg.	$643	U.S. Avg.	$1,688	U.S. Avg.	$2,661	
1	Wyoming	$470	Alaska	$4,168	Alaska	$8,918	Alaska	$12,466	1
2	Nevada	$419	Wyoming	$894	Wyoming	$2,712	Wyoming	$5,396	2
3	Alaska	$384	New York	$889	New York	$2,325	New York	$3,942	3
4	California	$374	Hawaii	$883	Hawaii	$2,123	Minnesota	$3,145	4
5	New York	$366	California	$853	Minnesota	$1,971	Delaware	$3,082	5
6	Montana	$351	Nevada	$849	Delaware	$1,962	Massachusetts	$3,011	6
7	North Dakota	$350	Vermont	$721	Massachusetts	$1,952	New Mexico	$2,999	7
	Hawaii	$350	New Mexico	$716	California	$1,944	California	$2,974	8
9	Colorado	$347	Washington	$705	Oregon	$1,942	New Jersey	$2,955	9
10	Oregon	$342	Wisconsin	$693	New Mexico	$1,934	Connecticut	$2,941	10
11	Washington	$334	Delaware	$692	North Dakota	$1,913	Hawaii	$2,881	11
12	New Mexico	$324	Montana	$682	Montana	$1,907	Michigan	$2,880	12
13	Vermont	$318	Minnesota	$680	Michigan	$1,888	Wisconsin	$2,806	13
14	South Dakota	$312	North Dakota	$678	Maryland	$1,881	Maryland	$2,798	14
	Minnesota	$312	Maryland	$677	Nevada	$1,814	Montana	$2,789	15
16	Louisiana	$309	Massachusetts	$675	Wisconsin	$1,809	Rhode Island	$2,783	16
17	Arizona	$308	Michigan	$667	Washington	$1,798	North Dakota	$2,765	17
18	Utah	$307	Colorado	$666	Rhode Island	$1,791	Oregon	$2,739	18
19	Kansas	$303	Oregon	$666	Colorado	$1,754	Nevada	$2,727	19
20	Massachusetts	$295	Arizona	$661	Vermont	$1,732	Washington	$2,686	20
21	Iowa	$290	Illinois	$658	New Jersey	$1,723	Colorado	$2,683	21
22	Michigan	$289	South Dakota	$651	Illinois	$1,694	Vermont	$2,658	22
	Idaho	$289	Utah	$650	Louisiana	$1,678	Utah	$2,578	23
24	Delaware	$285	Connecticut	$650	Nebraska	$1,673	Nebraska	$2,501	24
25	Wisconsin	$283	Iowa	$636	Iowa	$1,629	Arizona	$2,496	25
26	Oklahoma	$280	Nebraska	$614	Connecticut	$1,623	Iowa	$2,480	26
27	Connecticut	$278	Kansas	$607	Arizona	$1,606	Illinois	$2,476	27
28	Illinois	$273	Rhode Island	$604	South Dakota	$1,604	Kansas	$2,467	28
29	Florida	$269	New Jersey	$603	Kansas	$1,581	Louisiana	$2,461	29
30	Maine	$263	Louisiana	$583	Utah	$1,564	Pennsylvania	$2,449	30
	New Jersey	$263	Oklahoma	$575	Pennsylvania	$1,542	Maine	$2,440	31
32	Maryland	$262	Idaho	$566	Oklahoma	$1,505	Ohio	$2,404	32
33	Ohio	$261	Pennsylvaria	$561	Maine	$1,493	Georgia	$2,371	33
34	New Hampshire	$259	Maine	$545	WEST VIRGINIA	$1,488	South Dakota	$2,330	34
35	Rhode Island	$257	WEST VIRGINIA	$529	Georgia	$1,469	Oklahoma	$2,315	35
36	Nebraska	$254	Indiana	$527	Virginia	$1,460	Texas	$2,290	36
37	Indiana	$248	Florida	$527	Idaho	$1,432	Virginia	$2,287	37
38	Texas	$247	Missouri	$524	Texas	$1,425	WEST VIRGINIA	$2,249	38
39	Pennsylvania	$231	Georgia	$522	Ohio	$1,386	Florida	$2,204	39
40	Missouri	$226	Mississippi	$518	Kentucky	$1,375	Indiana	$2,167	40
41	Georgia	$222	Ohio	$517	Mississippi	$1,374	Kentucky	$2,114	41
42	WEST VIRGINIA	$218	Virginia	$515	Alabama	$1,364	New Hampshire	$2,113	42
43	Mississippi	$208	Texas	$509	Florida	$1,359	Alabama	$2,112	43
44	Tennessee	$205	Kentucky	$508	Missouri	$1,340	South Carolina	$2,076	44
	Virginia	$205	Alabama	$500	New Hampshire	$1,326	North Carolina	$2,060	45
46	Arkansas	$204	New Hampshire	$498	North Carolina	$1,316	Mississippi	$2,028	46
47	North Carolina	$201	Tennessee	$474	South Carolina	$1,289	Missouri	$2,020	47
48	Alabama	$200	North Carolina	$472	Tennessee	$1,283	Tennessee	$2,016	48
49	South Carolina	$199	Arkansas	$453	Arkansas	$1,268	Idaho	$1,983	49
50	Kentucky	$192	South Carolina	$435	Indiana	$1,252	Arkansas	$1,891	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961, P. 422.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1969-70, 1979-80, and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Note: General Revenue means "all governmental revenue except utility revenue, liquor store revenue, and employee-retirement and other insurance trust revenue. Federal revenues transferred to state and local units are included.

U.S. average includes the District of Columbia.

TABLE 2

PER CAPITA STATE AND LOCAL GENERAL REVENUE FROM OWN SOURCES
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$242	U.S. Avg.	$536	U.S. Avg.	$1,321	U.S. Avg.	$2,191	
1	Nevada	$345	Alaska	$3,810	Alaska	$7,841	Alaska	$11,567	1
2	New York	$337	New York	$768	Wyoming	$2,127	Wyoming	$4,428	2
3	Iowa	$335	Hawaii	$695	New York	$1,843	New York	$3,252	3
4	California	$328	Nevada	$693	Hawaii	$1,629	Minnesota	$2,626	4
5	Wyoming	$320	California	$689	Minnesota	$1,582	Delaware	$2,556	5
6	Colorado	$292	Wyoming	$641	California	$1,545	Connecticut	$2,513	6
7	Washington	$289	Wisconsin	$611	New Mexico	$1,508	New Jersey	$2,505	7
8	Hawaii	$281	Delaware	$604	Delaware	$1,493	New Mexico	$2,477	8
9	Oregon	$279	Washington	$588	North Dakota	$1,485	Massachusetts	$2,462	9
10	North Dakota	$275	Maryland	$586	Maryland	$1,485	California	$2,454	10
11	Montana	$273	Michigan	$575	Massachusetts	$1,478	Hawaii	$2,380	11
12	Minnesota	$270	Minnesota	$574	Michigan	$1,468	Michigan	$2,362	12
13	Massachusetts	$264	Massachusetts	$568	Oregon	$1,460	Maryland	$2,331	13
14	Michigan	$260	Connecticut	$565	Nevada	$1,436	Wisconsin	$2,311	14
15	Kansas	$259	Illinois	$564	Wisconsin	$1,430	Nevada	$2,286	15
16	Arizona	$259	Vermont	$558	Washington	$1,429	Colorado	$2,253	16
17	Wisconsin	$253	North Dakota	$551	New Jersey	$1,413	Washington	$2,226	17
18	Connecticut	$252	Iowa	$546	Colorado	$1,407	Oregon	$2,210	18
19	Delaware	$251	Colorado	$541	Nebraska	$1,372	Arizona	$2,185	19
20	Vermont	$250	Arizona	$540	Montana	$1,356	Rhode Island	$2,185	
21	New Mexico	$249	Oregon	$530	Illinois	$1,341	North Dakota	$2,164	21
	South Dakota	$249	New Jersey	$528	Rhode Island	$1,336	Montana	$2,121	22
23	Louisiana	$245	Nebraska	$528	Iowa	$1,315	Kansas	$2,092	23
24	New Jersey	$244	New Mexico	$520	Arizona	$1,309	Nebraska	$2,074	24
25	Illinois	$237	South Dakota	$512	Connecticut	$1,309	Iowa	$2,067	25
26	Maryland	$236	Kansas	$511	Louisiana	$1,275	Vermont	$2,047	26
27	Utah	$235	Montana	$506	Kansas	$1,270	Illinois	$2,033	27
28	Florida	$232	Utah	$485	Pennsylvania	$1,232	Utah	$2,022	28
29	Alaska	$231	Rhode Island	$480	Vermont	$1,193	Louisiana	$2,009	29
30	Idaho	$229	Pennsylvania	$476	Oklahoma	$1,175	Pennsylvania	$1,973	30
31	Ohio	$229	Louisiana	$463	Utah	$1,166	Ohio	$1,966	31
32	Oklahoma	$223	Indiana	$461	Texas	$1,161	Texas	$1,960	32
33	Rhode Island	$219	Florida	$458	South Dakota	$1,146	Oklahoma	$1,933	33
34	Maine	$219	Idaho	$450	Virginia	$1,138	Georgia	$1,932	34
35	Indiana	$219	Maine	$445	Georgia	$1,117	Florida	$1,905	35
36	Nebraska	$216	Ohio	$444	Ohio	$1,100	Virginia	$1,894	36
37	New Hampshire	$209	Oklahoma	$432	Florida	$1,077	Maine	$1,850	37
38	Texas	$207	Virginia	$427	Idaho	$1,076	Indiana	$1,777	38
39	Pennsylvania	$205	Missouri	$426	WEST VIRGINIA	$1,075	South Dakota	$1,750	39
40	Missouri	$180	Georgia	$423	Maine	$1,062	WEST VIRGINIA	$1,738	40
41	Georgia	$179	Texas	$418	Indiana	$1,031	New Hampshire	$1,727	41
42	Virginia	$172	New Hampshire	$411	Kentucky	$1,006	South Carolina	$1,675	42
	WEST VIRGINIA	$172	Mississippi	$392	Missouri	$1,003	North Carolina	$1,674	43
44	North Carolina	$168	Kentucky	$392	New Hampshire	$987	Alabama	$1,671	44
45	Tennessee	$162	North Carolina	$390	Alabama	$986	Kentucky	$1,647	45
46	Mississippi	$161	WEST VIRGINIA	$378	North Carolina	$983	Missouri	$1,646	46
	South Carolina	$161	Alabama	$369	South Carolina	$979	Tennessee	$1,565	47
48	Arkansas	$154	Tennessee	$367	Mississippi	$948	Idaho	$1,537	48
49	Alabama	$153	South Carolina	$351	Tennessee	$937	Mississippi	$1,528	49
50	Kentucky	$147	Arkansas	$337	Arkansas	$902	Arkansas	$1,448	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, p. 422.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

U.S. average includes the District of Columbia.

TABLE 3

STATE AND LOCAL GENERAL REVENUE FROM OWN SOURCES PER $1,000 OF PERSONAL INCOME 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$109	U.S. Avg.	$146	U.S. Avg.	$155	U.S. Avg.	$160	
1	North Dakota	$158	Alaska	$915	Alaska	$689	Alaska	$652	1
2	Louisiana	$153	Wyoming	$198	Wyoming	$224	Wyoming	$333	2
3	New Mexico	$138	North Dakota	$184	New Mexico	$209	New Mexico	$231	3
	Mississippi	$138	New Mexico	$183	New York	$201	New York	$202	4
5	Wyoming	$137	Wisconsin	$176	Hawaii	$188	Utah	$195	5
6	Montana	$135	Hawaii	$175	North Dakota	$179	Montana	$192	6
	South Dakota	$135	Vermont	$174	Minnesota	$179	Minnesota	$187	7
8	Vermont	$134	New York	$172	Montana	$177	Delaware	$182	8
9	Minnesota	$132	South Dakota	$171	Louisiana	$176	Louisiana	$179	9
10	Arizona	$129	Arizona	$168	Utah	$173	North Dakota	$178	10
11	Idaho	$128	Nevada	$166	Arizona	$172	Arizona	$178	
12	Colorado	$126	Mississippi	$166	Oregon	$170	Wisconsin	$176	12
13	Kansas	$125	California	$165	Vermont	$169	Oregon	$176	
	Hawaii	$125	Utah	$164	Wisconsin	$168	Michigan	$175	
	Washington	$125	Minnesota	$162	Massachusetts	$165	Hawaii	$174	15
16	Utah	$123	Louisiana	$162	Delaware	$164	Vermont	$171	16
	Oregon	$123	Montana	$162	Maryland	$162	WEST VIRGINIA	$169	17
	Iowa	$123	Colorado	$158	Colorado	$161	Mississippi	$167	18
19	Nevada	$121	Iowa	$156	California	$160	Washington	$162	19
	Oklahoma	$121	Washington	$153	Rhode Island	$160	Nevada	$162	
	New York	$121	Oregon	$153	Mississippi	$159	Iowa	$162	
22	California	$120	Idaho	$151	Nebraska	$157	South Carolina	$160	22
23	Florida	$117	Nebraska	$150	Washington	$157	Oklahoma	$158	23
24	Wisconsin	$116	Maryland	$150	Michigan	$157	Rhode Island	$158	
25	Arkansas	$115	Delaware	$149	Georgia	$156	Alabama	$158	
	Maine	$115	Maine	$148	Nevada	$155	Georgia	$157	26
	South Carolina	$115	Michigan	$146	Maine	$155	Maine	$157	
28	Michigan	$112	Massachusetts	$142	South Dakota	$154	South Dakota	$157	
	Georgia	$112	Kansas	$142	WEST VIRGINIA	$151	California	$156	29
30	Texas	$107	Oklahoma	$141	Iowa	$151	Nebraska	$155	30
31	North Carolina	$106	Alabama	$139	Idaho	$148	Colorado	$154	31
32	Tennessee	$105	WEST VIRGINIA	$139	South Carolina	$148	Kansas	$153	32
	Massachusetts	$105	Florida	$139	Alabama	$146	Kentucky	$152	33
	Alabama	$105	Kentucky	$137	New Jersey	$146	Massachusetts	$151	34
35	WEST VIRGINIA	$103	Georgia	$136	Pennsylvania	$146	Maryland	$149	35
36	Nebraska	$102	Illinois	$132	Oklahoma	$144	Ohio	$149	
37	New Hampshire	$101	North Carolina	$132	Kentucky	$141	Texas	$148	37
38	Indiana	$100	Arizona	$131	Texas	$140	Pennsylvania	$147	38
39	Maryland	$99	Pennsylvania	$130	North Carolina	$139	New Jersey	$147	
	Rhode Island	$99	Rhode Island	$130	Illinois	$139	North Carolina	$146	40
41	Ohio	$98	South Carolina	$130	Florida	$139	Indiana	$143	41
42	Kentucky	$95	Tennessee	$129	Kansas	$138	Florida	$142	42
43	Virginia	$93	Virginia	$129	Virginia	$136	Tennessee	$140	43
44	New Jersey	$91	Texas	$128	Arkansas	$136	Connecticut	$140	
	Illinois	$91	Indiana	$127	Tennessee	$134	Arkansas	$139	45
46	Pennsylvania	$90	New Jersey	$125	Connecticut	$129	Illinois	$138	46
47	Connecticut	$88	Connecticut	$124	Ohio	$127	Idaho	$138	
48	Alaska	$84	Missouri	$124	Missouri	$123	Virginia	$132	48
49	Delaware	$83	New Hampshire	$122	New Hampshire	$123	Missouri	$125	49
50	Missouri	$82	Ohio	$118	Indiana	$122	New Hampshire	$119	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, p. 422.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4

PER CAPITA STATE AND LOCAL TAXES
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$201	U.S. Avg.	$427	U.S. Avg.	$987	U.S. Avg.	$1,547	
1	New York	$288	New York	$652	Alaska	$4,189	Alaska	$4,489	1
2	California	$278	Hawaii	$572	New York	$1,495	Wyoming	$2,628	2
3	Nevada	$273	California	$559	Wyoming	$1,399	New York	$2,539	3
4	Hawaii	$237	Nevada	$517	Hawaii	$1,278	Connecticut	$1,947	4
5	Wyoming	$236	Wisconsin	$509	Massachusetts	$1,243	Massachusetts	$1,933	5
6	Massachusetts	$234	Massachusetts	$497	California	$1,172	New Jersey	$1,868	6
7	Colorado	$231	Illinois	$487	New Jersey	$1,137	Hawaii	$1,785	7
8	Washington	$228	Connecticut	$485	Minnesota	$1,125	Maryland	$1,742	8
9	Oregon	$225	Maryland	$482	Maryland	$1,104	Wisconsin	$1,730	9
10	Vermont	$223	Vermont	$471	Illinois	$1,084	California	$1,727	10
11	Montana	$219	Michigan	$456	Michigan	$1,075	Minnesota	$1,715	11
12	Kansas	$218	Delaware	$450	Conecticut	$1,070	Michigan	$1,703	12
13	Minnesota	$217	New Jersey	$447	Wisconsin	$1,061	Delaware	$1,661	13
	Michigan	$217	Washington	$443	Delaware	$1,059	Washington	$1,589	14
15	Wisconsin	$216	Minnesota	$442	Arizona	$1,007	Nevada	$1,559	15
16	Connecticut	$213	Iowa	$436	Montana	$1,000	Illinois	$1,546	16
17	Arizona	$208	Wyoming	$434	Rhode Island	$992	Rhode Island	$1,532	17
18	New Jersey	$207	Arizona	$425	Colorado	$990	Colorado	$1,485	18
19	Illinois	$206	Colorado	$419	Washington	$989	Vermont	$1,484	19
20	Iowa	$205	Alaska	$417	Oregon	$979	Arizona	$1,476	20
21	Maryland	$199	Rhode Island	$408	Pennsylvania	$978	Pennsylvania	$1,459	21
	Delaware	$199	Pennsylvania	$401	Nevada	$972	Oregon	$1,436	22
23	North Dakota	$198	Oregon	$400	Iowa	$967	Iowa	$1,417	23
	South Dakota	$198	South Dakota	$398	Nebraska	$963	Maine	$1,414	24
	Rhode Island	$198	Montana	$398	Kansas	$926	Ohio	$1,412	25
26	Utah	$197	Nebraska	$397	Vermont	$900	Virginia	$1,404	26
27	Maine	$193	Kansas	$395	New Mexico	$879	Kansas	$1,394	27
28	Idaho	$189	Maine	$380	Maine	$858	Montana	$1,376	28
29	Louisiana	$188	North Dakota	$376	Virginia	$856	Nebraska	$1,338	29
30	Ohio	$185	Utah	$375	North Dakota	$847	Texas	$1,292	30
31	Florida	$184	New Mexico	$359	Louisiana	$841	Utah	$1,292	
32	Indiana	$180	Indiana	$357	Utah	$840	North Dakota	$1,284	32
33	New Hampshire	$177	Idaho	$347	Oklahoma	$827	Oklahoma	$1,284	
	Oklahoma	$177	Florida	$347	Ohio	$810	Georgia	$1,280	34
35	New Mexico	$175	Ohio	$343	Texas	$806	Florida	$1,273	35
36	Nebraska	$174	Missouri	$343	WEST VIRGINIA	$796	Louisiana	$1,253	36
37	Pennsylvania	$173	Virginia	$340	South Dakota	$789	New Mexico	$1,241	37
38	Texas	$162	New Hampshire	$333	Georgia	$770	Indiana	$1,227	38
39	Alaska	$161	Louisiana	$331	Missouri	$759	North Carolina	$1,222	39
40	Missouri	$152	Texas	$316	Florida	$758	New Hampshire	$1,216	40
41	WEST VIRGINIA	$145	Georgia	$312	Idaho	$754	WEST VIRGINIA	$1,214	41
42	Georgia	$142	North Carolina	$311	North Carolina	$748	Missouri	$1,152	42
43	North Carolina	$137	Oklahoma	$306	Indiana	$744	South Dakota	$1,142	43
44	Tennessee	$135	WEST VIRGINIA	$301	Kentucky	$740	South Carolina	$1,138	44
45	Virginia	$134	Kentucky	$299	New Hampshire	$740	Kentucky	$1,103	45
46	Mississippi	$130	Mississippi	$296	South Carolina	$708	Tennessee	$1,077	46
47	South Carolina	$129	Tennessee	$279	Tennessee	$656	Idaho	$1,054	47
48	Arkansas	$126	South Carolina	$274	Arkansas	$654	Alabama	$1,022	48
49	Kentucky	$119	Alabama	$259	Alabama	$650	Arkansas	$1,011	49
50	Alabama	$118	Arkansas	$252	Mississippi	$646	Mississippi	$965	50

Source: GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1959-60, 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 5

STATE AND LOCAL TAX EFFORT INDEX
1960, 1971, 1980, 1985

Rank	State	1960	State	1971	State	1980	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	100%	U.S. Avg.	100%	U.S. Avg.	100%	U.S. Avg.	100%	
1	Hawaii	155%	New York	137%	New York	167%	New York	156%	1
2	New York	136%	Wisconsin	131%	Alaska	166%	Alaska	128%	2
3	Vermont	130%	Vermont	126%	Massachusetts	135%	Wisconsin	128%	
4	Maine	126%	Hawaii	124%	Hawaii	125%	Michigan	120%	4
5	Massachusetts	121%	Massachusetts	121%	Rhode Island	123%	Minnesota	119%	5
6	Alaska	116%	Rhode Island	115%	Arizona	117%	Rhode Island	118%	6
7	Washington	114%	Minnesota	113%	Michigan	116%	Iowa	112%	7
8	Mississippi	113%	Maine	111%	Wisconsin	116%	Utah	109%	8
	Oregon	113%	California	110%	New Jersey	112%	Wyoming	108%	9
10	Rhode Island	112%	Maryland	110%	Maine	111%	Montana	107%	10
11	Michigan	110%	South Dakota	107%	Minnesota	111%	Illinois	106%	11
	Wisconsin	110%	Pennsylvania	106%	Maryland	109%	Massachusetts	106%	
13	California	109%	Alaska	104%	Pennsylvania	104%	New Jersey	105%	13
14	Louisiana	106%	North Dakota	104%	Vermont	104%	Maine	104%	14
	Maryland	106%	Connecticut	102%	Illinois	103%	Ohio	103%	15
	South Carolina	106%	Illinois	102%	California	102%	WEST VIRGINIA	103%	
17	Minnesota	105%	New Jersey	102%	Nebraska	102%	Pennsylvania	102%	17
18	Arizona	104%	Arizona	101%	Utah	102%	Maryland	101%	18
19	Georgia	102%	Michigan	101%	Connecticut	100%	Oregon	101%	
20	WEST VIRGINIA	101%	Utah	101%	Mississippi	97%	Connecticut	99%	20
21	Colorado	100%	Washington	101%	North Carolina	97%	Hawaii	99%	
22	Utah	98%	Iowa	100%	Georgia	96%	Arizona	97%	22
23	New Jersey	97%	Colorado	95%	Iowa	96%	Indiana	96%	23
24	Kansas	96%	Indiana	95%	South Carolina	96%	Kansas	96%	
	North Carolina	96%	Mississippi	95%	Washington	94%	South Carolina	95%	25
	Pennsylvania	96%	Idaho	94%	Oregon	93%	Washington	95%	
27	New Hampshire	95%	South Carolina	94%	Montana	92%	California	94%	27
28	Oklahoma	94%	Delaware	93%	Colorado	90%	Louisiana	93%	28
	Connecticut	94%	Montana	91%	Delaware	89%	Mississippi	93%	
30	Nevada	93%	Oregon	91%	Kentucky	89%	Nebraska	93%	
	Tennessee	93%	WEST VIRGINIA	91%	Idaho	88%	North Carolina	93%	
32	South Dakota	92%	New Mexico	90%	Kansas	88%	Vermont	93%	
33	Alabama	91%	Virginia	90%	South Dakota	88%	North Dakota	92%	33
	Iowa	91%	Nebraska	88%	Virginia	88%	Arkansas	91%	34
	North Dakota	91%	North Carolina	88%	Ohio	87%	Georgia	90%	35
	Ohio	91%	Louisiana	86%	Arkansas	86%	Idaho	90%	
37	Arkansas	90%	Georgia	85%	Alabama	85%	Alabama	87%	37
	Florida	90%	Kentucky	84%	Indiana	84%	Kentucky	87%	
39	Idaho	89%	Kansas	83%	Missouri	84%	South Dakota	87%	
40	Illinois	88%	Alabama	81%	Tennessee	84%	Virginia	87%	
41	Delaware	87%	Missouri	81%	New Mexico	83%	New Mexico	86%	41
	Indiana	87%	Ohio	81%	WEST VIRGINIA	82%	Colorado	85%	42
43	Montana	86%	Tennessee	81%	North Dakota	79%	Missouri	84%	43
44	New Mexico	84%	New Hampshire	78%	Louisiana	78%	Oklahoma	84%	
	Virginia	84%	Florida	76%	New Hampshire	75%	Tennessee	82%	45
46	Kentucky	80%	Wyoming	75%	Florida	74%	Delaware	80%	46
47	Missouri	76%	Texas	73%	Wyoming	74%	Florida	76%	47
48	Wyoming	73%	Arkansas	71%	Oklahoma	72%	Texas	76%	
49	Nebraska	72%	Nevada	71%	Texas	65%	Texas	65%	49
50	Texas	67%	Oklahoma	68%	Nevada	60%	Nevada	64%	50

Source: Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, MEASURES OF STATE AND LOCAL FISCAL CAPACITY AND TAX EFFORT, 196
ACIR, FINANCING SCHOOLS AND PROPERTY TAX RELIEF-A STATE RESPONSIBILITY, 1973.
ACIR, TAX CAPACITY OF THE FIFTY STATES, 1982.
ACIR, SIGNIFICANT FEATURES OF FISCAL FEDERALISM, 1988 Edition.

(a) Tax capacity is estimated on the basis of the nationwide average estimated yield of a representative tax system for all states (the U.S. average is 100 percent by definition).

TABLE 6

REVENUE FROM STATE INCOME TAX AS PERCENT OF TOTAL STATE TAXES
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	18.8%	U.S. Avg.	27.0%	U.S. Avg.	36.8%	U.S. Avg.	37.6%	
1	Oregon	56.3%	Oregon	58.7%	Oregon	71.8%	Oregon	70.2%	1
2	New York	51.6%	Massachusetts	52.8%	Massachusetts	60.9%	Massachusetts	61.1%	2
3	Delaware	47.9%	New York	52.3%	New York	55.2%	New York	59.3%	3
4	Wisconsin	46.5%	Wisconsin	44.6%	Delaware	53.5%	Delaware	54.7%	4
5	Alaska	39.1%	Alaska	44.0%	Wisconsin	51.7%	Virginia	50.7%	5
6	Idaho	37.6%	Maryland	43.8%	Minnesota	51.3%	Michigan	50.4%	6
7	Virginia	37.4%	Delaware	41.9%	Michigan	47.5%	California	49.2%	7
8	Massachusetts	36.7%	Minnesota	41.7%	Virginia	47.3%	North Carolina	48.7%	8
	Minnesota	36.7%	Montana	37.7%	California	46.3%	Wisconsin	48.2%	9
10	Kentucky	31.5%	Vermont	36.6%	Alaska	46.2%	Georgia	48.1%	10
11	Vermont	31.3%	Virginia	36.6%	North Carolina	45.8%	Minnesota	47.3%	11
12	North Carolina	31.2%	Hawaii	35.1%	Maryland	45.7%	Maryland	46.7%	12
13	Maryland	30.7%	Colorado	34.6%	Iowa	42.3%	Colorado	45.8%	13
14	Hawaii	27.7%	North Carolina	32.2%	Montana	41.5%	Iowa	40.8%	14
15	Montana	23.7%	California	31.6%	Idaho	41.2%	Idaho	40.1%	15
16	Colorado	23.5%	Idaho	30.7%	Georgia	40.7%	Rhode Island	40.0%	16
17	California	22.9%	Utah	29.1%	Vermont	39.6%	Kansas	38.6%	17
18	South Carolina	21.5%	Georgia	28.6%	Utah	38.8%	Vermont	38.2%	18
19	Utah	21.2%	Michigan	26.0%	South Carolina	38.6%	Utah	38.0%	19
20	Georgia	16.3%	South Carolina	25.3%	Colorado	38.4%	South Carolina	36.6%	20
21	Kansas	15.7%	Illinois	25.0%	Kansas	38.2%	Nebraska	36.3%	21
22	Missouri	15.2%	Kentucky	22.9%	Illinois	38.1%	New Jersey	36.0%	22
	Iowa	15.2%	Kansas	22.7%	Rhode Island	37.7%	Ohio	35.9%	23
	Alabama	15.2%	Indiana	22.4%	Hawaii	36.2%	Illinois	35.8%	24
25	Pennsylvania	13.8%	Iowa	21.8%	Nebraska	35.9%	Missouri	35.8%	
26	Connecticut	12.9%	Nebraska	20.3%	Missouri	35.2%	Maine	35.3%	26
27	Arkansas	11.8%	Arkansas	19.6%	New Jersey	35.2%	Hawaii	34.3%	27
28	Mississippi	10.9%	Pennsylvania**	19.1%	Pennsylvania	35.0%	Arkansas	34.1%	28
29	Oklahoma	10.5%	Missouri	18.4%	Arkansas	34.5%	Indiana	33.9%	29
30	Arizona	10.3%	Rhode Island	18.2%	Ohio	32.7%	Pennsylvania	33.9%	
31	North Dakota	10.2%	Arizona	18.1%	Kentucky	31.0%	Kentucky	32.8%	31
32	Rhode Island	9.8%	Alabama	17.6%	Maine	30.4%	WEST VIRGINIA	30.7%	32
33	Tennessee	8.7%	Connecticut	16.8%	Indiana	27.3%	Alabama	30.5%	33
34	New Jersey	7.6%	New Mexico	16.4%	New Hampshire	27.3%	Montana	28.2%	34
35	Louisiana	6.8%	Oklahoma	15.5%	Alabama	27.2%	Arizona	27.3%	35
36	New Mexico	5.8%	North Dakota	15.1%	Oklahoma	25.4%	Oklahoma	26.9%	36
37	New Hampshire	3.8%	New Jersey	14.0%	North Dakota	24.1%	New Hampshire	25.6%	37
38	South Dakota	0.7%	Mississippi	13.2%	Arizona	24.0%	Connecticut	23.9%	38
39	Florida	*	Maine	13.1%	WEST VIRGINIA	23.4%	North Dakota	21.0%	39
40	Illinois	*	WEST VIRGINIA	11.4%	Louisiana	20.7%	Louisiana	19.9%	40
41	Indiana	*	Tennessee	10.4%	Connecticut	18.8%	Mississippi	19.3%	41
42	Maine	*	Louisiana	9.9%	Mississippi	17.0%	New Mexico	12.0%	42
43	Michigan	*	New Hampshire***	3.7%	Tennessee	12.1%	Tennessee	10.3%	43
44	Nebraska	*	South Dakota**	0.7%	New Mexico	10.1%	Alaska	9.6%	44
45	Nevada	*	Florida	*	Florida**	7.7%	South Dakota**	5.9%	45
46	Ohio	*	Nevada	*	South Dakota**	1.2%	Florida**	5.3%	46
47	Texas	*	Ohio	*	Nevada	*	Nevada	*	47
48	Washington	*	Texas	*	Texas	*	Texas	*	48
49	WEST VIRGINIA	*	Washington	*	Washington	*	Washington	*	49
50	Wyoming	*	Wyoming	*	Wyoming	*	Wyoming	*	50

Source: FACTS AND FIGURES ON GOVERNMENT FINANCE: 1960-61, Tax Foundation, Inc.
STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1971.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Note: Includes both individual and corporate income taxes.
* No individual or corporate income tax for year indicated.
** No individual income tax for year indicated.
*** No corporate income tax for year indicated.

TABLE 7

PERCENT OF STATE AND LOCAL GENERAL REVENUE FROM FEDERAL GOVERNMENT 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	13.8%	U.S. Avg.	16.7%	U.S. Avg.	21.7%	U.S. Avg.	17.6%	
1	Alaska	39.8%	WEST VIRGINIA	28.6%	Vermont	31.1%	South Dakota	24.9%	1
2	Wyoming	31.9%	Wyoming	28.3%	Mississippi	31.0%	Mississippi	24.7%	
3	Arkansas	24.4%	New Mexico	27.4%	Maine	28.9%	Maine	24.2%	3
4	Kentucky	23.6%	Alabama	26.2%	Montana	28.9%	Montana	24.0%	4
5	Alabama	23.5%	Montana	25.7%	Arkansas	28.9%	Arkansas	23.4%	5
6	New Mexico	23.3%	Arkansas	25.4%	South Dakota	28.5%	Vermont	23.0%	6
	Utah	23.3%	Utah	25.4%	WEST VIRGINIA	27.8%	WEST VIRGINIA	22.7%	7
8	Mississippi	22.5%	Oklahoma	24.8%	Alabama	27.7%	Idaho	22.5%	8
9	Montana	22.1%	Mississippi	24.3%	Tennessee	26.9%	Tennessee	22.4%	9
10	North Dakota	21.6%	Kentucky	22.8%	Kentucky	26.8%	Kentucky	22.1%	10
11	Vermont	21.3%	Vermont	22.6%	New Hampshire	25.5%	North Dakota	21.8%	11
12	Tennessee	20.9%	Tennessee	22.4%	Rhode Island	25.4%	Rhode Island	21.6%	12
	WEST VIRGINIA	20.9%	Hawaii	21.3%	Utah	25.4%	Utah	21.6%	
14	Idaho	20.6%	South Dakota	21.3%	North Carolina	25.3%	Alabama	20.9%	14
	Louisiana	20.6%	Louisiana	20.5%	Missouri	25.1%	Pennsylvania	19.4%	15
16	South Dakota	20.4%	Idaho	20.4%	Idaho	24.9%	Oregon	19.3%	16
17	Oklahoma	20.2%	Rhode Island	20.4%	Oregon	24.8%	South Carolina	19.3%	
18	Hawaii	19.7%	Oregon	20.3%	Massachusetts	24.3%	North Carolina	18.8%	18
19	New Hampshire	19.3%	South Carolina	19.3%	South Carolina	24.1%	Georgia	18.5%	19
20	Georgia	19.2%	California	19.2%	Georgia	24.0%	Missouri	18.5%	
21	South Carolina	19.1%	Georgia	19.0%	Louisiana	24.0%	Louisiana	18.4%	21
22	Oregon	18.6%	Colorado	18.7%	Delaware	23.9%	New Hampshire	18.3%	22
23	Missouri	17.9%	Missouri	18.6%	Hawaii	23.3%	Massachusetts	18.2%	23
24	Nevada	17.6%	North Dakota	18.6%	North Dakota	22.4%	Ohio	18.2%	
25	North Carolina	16.8%	Nevada	18.4%	Michigan	22.3%	Indiana	18.0%	25
26	Maine	16.7%	Arizona	18.3%	Virginia	22.1%	Michigan	18.0%	
27	Texas	16.3%	Maine	18.2%	New Mexico	22.0%	Illinois	17.9%	27
28	Arizona	15.9%	Texas	17.9%	Oklahoma	21.9%	Wyoming	17.9%	
29	Virginia	15.8%	New Hampshire	17.4%	Wyoming	21.6%	Wisconsin	17.6%	29
30	Colorado	15.6%	North Carolina	17.2%	Maryland	21.1%	California	17.5%	30
31	Iowa	15.5%	Virginia	17.0%	Wisconsin	21.0%	New York	17.5%	
32	Nebraska	15.0%	Washington	16.6%	Illinois	20.9%	Hawaii	17.4%	32
33	Kansas	14.5%	Kansas	15.8%	Nevada	20.8%	New Mexico	17.4%	
	Rhode Island	14.5%	Massachusetts	15.[illegible]%	Florida	20.7%	Virginia	17.2%	34
35	Florida	13.7%	Minnesota	15.5%	New York	20.7%	Delaware	17.1%	35
36	Washington	13.5%	Pennsylvania	15.1%	Ohio	20.6%	Nebraska	17.1%	
37	Minnesota	13.4%	Iowa	14.2%	California	20.5%	Washington	17.1%	
38	Illinois	13.0%	Illinois	14.2%	Washington	20.5%	Maryland	16.7%	38
39	California	12.3%	Ohio	14.0%	Pennsylvania	20.1%	Iowa	16.6%	39
	Ohio	12.3%	Nebraska	13.9%	Colorado	19.8%	Minnesota	16.5%	40
41	Delaware	12.0%	Michigan	13.8%	Kansas	19.7%	Oklahoma	16.5%	
42	Indiana	11.9%	New York	13.6%	Minnesota	19.7%	Nevada	16.2%	42
43	Pennsylvania	11.6%	Maryland	13.4%	Connecticut	19.3%	Colorado	16.0%	43
44	Massachusetts	10.8%	Connecticut	13.0%	Iowa	19.3%	Kansas	15.2%	44
45	Wisconsin	10.7%	Florida	13.0%	Texas	18.6%	New Jersey	15.2%	
46	Maryland	9.8%	Delaware	12.7%	Arizona	18.5%	Connecticut	14.6%	46
	Michigan	9.8%	Indiana	12.5%	Nebraska	18.0%	Texas	14.4%	47
48	Connecticut	9.3%	New Jersey	12.3%	New Jersey	18.0%	Florida	13.5%	48
49	New York	8.0%	Wisconsin	11.8%	Indiana	17.7%	Arizona	12.5%	49
50	New Jersey	7.2%	Alaska	8.5%	Alaska	12.1%	Alaska	7.2%	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 8

PER CAPITA STATE AND LOCAL DIRECT GENERAL EXPENDITURES
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$288	U.S. Avg.	$646	U.S. Avg.	$1,622	U.S. Avg.	$2,516	
1	Wyoming	$454	Alaska	$1,350	Alaska	$1,257	Alaska	$9,452	1
2	Nevada	$421	Hawaii	$1,039	Wyoming	$2,335	Wyoming	$4,473	2
3	California	$380	New York	$919	New York	$2,204	New York	$3,629	3
4	New York	$374	Wyoming	$876	Hawaii	$1,945	Minnesota	$3,049	4
5	Hawaii	$36	Nevada	$851	Oregon	$1,899	California	$2,872	5
6	North Dakota	$369	California	$841	Minnesota	$1,894	Delaware	$2,818	6
7	Alaska	$345	Delaware	$790	Michigan	$1,880	New Jersey	$2,801	7
8	Colorado	$344	Washington	$759	Nevada	$1,867	Montana	$2,785	8
9	Oregon	$343	Minnesota	$728	North Dakota	$1,840	Michigan	$2,780	9
10	Delaware	$336	Vermont	$724	California	$1,834	Wisconsin	$2,736	10
11	Montana	$334	Oregon	$693	Delaware	$1,809	Massachusetts	$2,731	11
12	Washington	$333	Wisconsin	$692	Maryland	$1,809	North Dakota	$2,707	12
13	Minnesota	$329	Massachusetts	$688	Wisconsin	$1,799	Hawaii	$2,702	13
14	Vermont	$327	Connecticut	$678	Massachusetts	$1,796	New Mexico	$2,696	14
15	Louisiana	$323	Michigan	$677	Washington	$1,782	Rhode Island	$2,681	15
16	Connecticut	$312	Montana	$675	Montana	$1,769	Oregon	$2,672	16
17	Arizona	$309	Maryland	$672	Rhode Island	$1,754	Nevada	$2,666	17
18	New Mexico	$309	New Mexico	$671	New Jersey	$1,688	Connecticut	$2,582	18
19	Utah	$307	North Dakota	$657	Iowa	$1,686	Maryland	$2,580	19
20	Michigan	$302	Iowa	$644	New Mexico	$1,658	Vermont	$2,577	20
21	South Dakota	$301	Colorado	$641	Utah	$1,615	Washington	$2,569	21
22	Massachusetts	$297	South Dakota	$638	Vermont	$1,600	Colorado	$2,568	22
23	Iowa	$294	Utah	$636	Illinois	$1,587	Arizona	$2,542	23
24	Kansas	$291	Arizona	$629	South Dakota	$1,586	Utah	$2,483	24
25	Wisconsin	$290	Rhode Island	$618	Kansas	$1,586	Iowa	$2,443	25
26	Illinois	$287	Kansas	$608	Connecticut	$1.583	Louisiana	$2,423	26
27	Idaho	$284	New Jersey	$604	Colorado	$1,578	Nebraska	$2,395	27
28	Florida	$283	Illinois	$603	Louisiana	$1,560	Kansas	$2,382	28
29	Oklahoma	$282	Pennsylvania	$597	Arizona	$1,547	Illinois	$2,351	29
30	New Hampshire	$275	Idaho	$591	Nebraska	$1,544	Maine	$2,309	30
31	Ohio	$273	Oklaoma	$576	WEST VIRGINIA	$1,521	Ohio	$2,289	31
32	Maryland	$269	Nebraska	$575	Kentucky	$1,477	South Dakota	$2,254	32
	Nebraska	$269	Louisiana	$565	Pennsylvania	$1,469	Oklahoma	$2,228	33
34	New Jersey	$257	WEST VIRGINIA	$558	Virginia	$1,440	Virginia	$2,212	34
	Pennsylvania	$257	Maine	$552	Ohio	$1,431	Texas	$2,204	35
36	Maine	$256	Missouri	$551	Oklahoma	$1,406	Georgia	$2,199	36
	Indiana	$256	Georgia	$547	Maine	$1,405	Pennsylvania	$2,189	37
	Rhode Island	$256	New Hampshire	$537	Georgia	$1,366	WEST VIRGINIA	$2,158	38
39	Texas	$246	Ohio	$535	Idaho	$1,366	Alabama	$2,125	39
40	Missouri	$232	Kentucky	$534	Texas	$1,362	Florida	$2,123	40
41	Mississippi	$231	Florida	$528	Mississippi	$1,354	New Hampshire	$2,024	41
42	Georgia	$222	Mississippi	$524	New Hampshire	$1,340	Indiana	$1,998	42
43	WEST VIRGINIA	$217	Virginia	$522	Alabama	$1,326	Idaho	$1,979	43
	Alabama	$217	Indiana	$516	Florida	$1,309	South Carolina	$1,972	44
	Tennessee	$217	Alabama	$505	North Carolina	$1,301	Mississippi	$1,957	45
46	Virginia	$213	Texas	$503	Tennessee	$1,291	Kentucky	$1,921	46
47	Kentucky	$198	Tennessee	$497	Missouri	$1,280	Tennessee	$1,918	47
	Arkansas	$198	Arkansas	$473	South Carolina	$1,269	Missouri	$1,916	48
49	North Carolina	$195	North Carolina	$464	Indiana	$1,243	North Carolina	$1,911	49
50	South Carolina	$183	South Carolina	$457	Arkansas	$1,200	Arkansas	$1,843	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, P. 422.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

Note: Exlcudes intergovernmental expenditures.

TABLE 9

STATE AND LOCAL DIRECT GENERAL EXPENDITURES
PER $1,000 PERSONAL INCOME
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$130	U.S. Avg.	$176	U.S. Avg.	$190	U.S. Avg.	$183	
1	North Dakota	$212	Alaska	$324	Alaska	$549	Alaska	$532	1
2	Louisiana	$201	Wyoming	$271	Wyoming	$246	Wyoming	$337	2
3	Mississippi	$197	Hawaii	$262	New Jersey	$241	New Mexico	$252	3
4	Wyoming	$195	New Mexico	$237	Utah	$240	Montana	$251	4
5	Vermont	$176	Vermont	$226	Montana	$230	Utah	$239	5
6	New Mexico	$171	Mississippi	$222	New Mexico	$230	New York	$225	6
7	Montana	$166	North Dakota	$219	Mississippi	$227	North Dakota	$223	7
8	South Dakota	$164	Montana	$216	Vermont	$226	Minnesota	$217	8
9	Hawaii	$162	Utah	$215	Hawaii	$225	Louisiana	$216	9
10	Utah	$161	South Dakota	$213	North Dakota	$222	Mississippi	$214	10
11	Minnesota	$160	New York	$206	Oregon	$221	Vermont	$214	
12	Idaho	$158	Minnesota	$206	Louisiana	$215	Oregon	$213	12
13	Arizona	$154	WEST VIRGINIA	$206	Minnesota	$215	WEST VIRGINIA	$210	13
14	Oklahoma	$153	Nevada	$204	WEST VIRGINIA	$214	Wisconsin	$207	14
15	Oregon	$152	California	$201	South Dakota	$213	Arizona	$207	
16	Alabama	$149	Oregon	$200	Wisconsin	$211	Michigan	$205	16
17	Colorado	$148	Wisconsin	$199	Rhode Island	$210	South Dakota	$202	17
	Nevada	$148	Idaho	$199	Kentucky	$207	Delaware	$201	18
19	Iowa	$147	Washington	$198	Maine	$205	Alabama	$201	
20	Washington	$144	Louisiana	$198	Arizona	$204	Hawaii	$197	20
21	Florida	$142	Arizona	$195	Nevada	$202	Maine	$196	21
22	Kansas	$140	Delaware	$195	Michigan	$201	Rhode Island	$193	22
	Tennessee	$140	Alabama	$191	Massachusetts	$201	Iowa	$191	23
24	California	$139	Oklahoma	$188	Delaware	$198	Nevada	$189	24
25	Maine	$135	Kentucky	$187	Maryland	$198	South Carolina	$188	25
26	New York	$134	Colorado	$187	Alabama	$197	Washington	$187	26
	Wisocnsin	$134	Iowa	$184	Washington	$196	Oklahoma	$182	27
28	New Hampshire	$133	Maine	$183	Iowa	$193	California	$180	28
29	Georgia	$132	Arkansas	$183	South Carolina	$191	Nebraska	$179	29
30	South Carolina	$131	Georgia	$176	Georgia	$191	Georgia	$179	
31	Michigan	$130	Tennessee	$174	California	$190	Kentucky	$178	31
	WEST VIRGINIA	$130	Massachusetts	$172	Idaho	$188	Idaho	$178	
33	Kentucky	$128	Maryland	$172	North Carolina	$185	Arkansas	$177	33
	Texas	$128	Michigan	$172	Tennessee	$184	Colorado	$175	34
35	Nebraska	$127	Kansas	$169	Arkansas	$181	Kansas	$174	35
36	Alaska	$126	South Carolina	$169	Colorado	$180	Ohio	$173	36
37	North Carolina	$124	Rhode Island	$167	Nebraska	$177	Tennessee	$172	37
38	Arkansas	$121	Nebraska	$163	New Jersey	$174	Texas	$167	38
39	Massachusetts	$118	Pennsylvania	$163	Pennsylvania	$174	North Carolina	$167	
40	Indiana	$117	Missouri	$160	Oklahoma	$173	Massachusetts	$166	40
	Ohio	$117	Florida	$160	Virginia	$173	Maryland	$165	41
42	Virginia	$115	New Hampshire	$159	Kansas	$171	New Jersey	$164	42
	Rhode Island	$115	Virginia	$157	Florida	$168	Pennsylvania	$163	43
44	Pennsylvania	$113	North Carolina	$157	New Hampshire	$167	Indiana	$160	44
45	Maryland	$112	Texas	$154	Ohio	$165	Illinois	$160	
46	Delaware	$111	Connecticut	$149	Texas	$165	Florida	$159	46
47	Illinois	$110	New Jersey	$143	Illinois	$165	Virginia	$154	47
48	Connecticut	$109	Ohio	$142	Missouri	$157	Missouri	$146	48
49	Missouri	$106	Indiana	$142	Connecticut	$156	Connecticut	$143	49
50	New Jersey	$96	Illinois	$141	Indiana	$148	New Hampshire	$139	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, P. 422.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

Note: Excludes intergovernmental expenditures.

TABLE 10

TOTAL STATE AND LOCAL DEBT PER CAPITA
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$389	U.S. Avg.	$454	U.S. Avg.	$1,482	U.S. Avg.	$2,733	
1	New York	$749	Alaska	$1,395	Alaska	$10,098	Alaska	$22,220	1
2	Washington	$746	Delaware	$1,325	Nebraska	$2,933	Delaware	$5,612	2
3	Delaware	$695	New York	$1,305	Washington	$2,815	Utah	$5,268	3
4	Connecticut	$642	Washington	$1,267	Delaware	$2,726	Wyoming	$4,572	4
5	Maryland	$538	Connecticut	$1,130	Oregon	$2,668	Washington	$4,254	5
6	Massachusetts	$504	Hawaii	$1,017	New York	$2,648	Arizona	$4,161	6
7	Hawaii	$494	Nebraska	$907	Wyoming	$2,477	Louisiana	$4,154	7
8	Alaska	$432	Louisiana	$847	Hawaii	$2,260	New York	$3,988	8
9	California	$426	Maryland	$846	Rhode Island	$2,142	Nebraska	$3,906	9
10	New Jersey	$422	Kentucky	$817	Minnesota	$2,129	Minnesota	$3,898	10
11	Louisiana	$419	Rhode Island	$797	Kentucky	$2,027	Oregon	$3,869	11
12	Illinois	$412	California	$794	Connecticut	$1,863	Rhode Island	$3,652	12
13	Nebraska	$406	Pennsylvania	$768	Massachusetts	$1,784	New Jersey	$3,519	13
14	Pennsylvania	$400	Nevada	$739	Maryland	$1,779	New Mexico	$3,347	14
15	Colorado	$376	Alabama	$734	Arizona	$1,748	Hawaii	$3,202	15
	Texas	$376	Massachusetts	$730	Pennsylvania	$1,718	Nevada	$3,156	16
17	Kansas	$362	Vermont	$701	New Jersey	$1,713	Maryland	$3,097	17
18	Oregon	$360	New Jersey	$699	Louisiana	$1,687	Connecticut	$3,091	18
19	Rhode Island	$358	Minnesota	$687	WEST VIRGINIA	$1,665	Kentucky	$3,054	19
20	Minesota	$355	Wyoming	$687	Nevada	$1,645	Massachusetts	$3,050	20
21	Arizona	$352	Tennessee	$659	South Dakota	$1,643	Colorado	$2,950	21
22	Ohio	$347	Oregon	$642	Vermont	$1,544	Montana	$2,927	22
23	Tennessee	$346	Oklahoma	$633	New Mexico	$1,456	Texas	$2,860	23
24	Florida	$339	Texas	$627	Texas	$1,452	New Hampshire	$2,836	24
25	Nevada	$326	Illinois	$603	New Hampshire	$1,406	Florida	$2,712	25
26	Michigan	$307	Michigan	$581	Kansas	$1,387	Pennsylvania	$2,637	26
27	Wyoming	$305	Georgia	$566	Illinois	$1,338	WEST VIRGINIA	$2,612	27
28	Alabama	$289	Utah	$563	Colorado	$1,316	South Carolina	$2,558	28
29	New Hampshire	$282	Mississippi	$556	Tennessee	$1,316	Vermont	$2,537	29
	Oklahoma	$282	Florida	$551	North Dakota	$1,265	Oklahoma	$2,515	30
31	Mississippi	$272	Ohio	$549	Wisconsin	$1,206	California	$2,413	31
32	Georgia	$267	Wisconsin	$535	Michigan	$1,201	South Dakota	$2,385	32
33	Maine	$253	Colorado	$533	Maine	$1,191	Kansas	$2,304	33
	Montana	$253	Arizona	$532	Georgia	$1,135	Illinois	$2,219	34
35	Utah	$249	Arkansas	$522	Oklahoma	$1,115	Alabama	$2,211	35
	Virginia	$249	Kansas	$516	Virginia	$1,097	North Dakota	$2,129	36
37	New Mexico	$248	WEST VIRGINIA	$487	Montana	$1,083	Tennessee	$2,040	37
38	WEST VIRGINIA	$247	New Hampshire	$485	Florida	$1,075	Georgia	$2,039	38
39	Indiana	$237	Missouri	$485	South Carolina	$1,073	Maine	$2,035	39
40	Vermont	$234	Virginia	$481	Alabama	$1,049	North Carolina	$2,031	40
41	Missouri	$223	Maine	$445	California	$1,023	Wisconsin	$1,983	41
42	South Carolina	$216	New Mexico	$417	Ohio	$971	Michigan	$1,947	42
	Wisconsin	$216	Indiana	$399	Utah	$968	Virginia	$1,754	43
44	North Carolina	$208	Iowa	$370	Arkansas	$883	Ohio	$1,675	44
45	Idaho	$204	North Dakota	$362	Missouri	$860	Iowa	$1,611	45
46	Arkansas	$187	North Carolina	$342	Mississippi	$845	Arkansas	$1,594	46
47	Kentucky	$184	Montana	$341	Iowa	$788	Missouri	$1,520	47
48	North Dakota	$175	South Carolina	$332	North Carolina	$752	Mississippi	$1,341	48
49	Iowa	$152	Idaho	$280	Indiana	$715	Indiana	$1,317	49
50	South Dakota	$96	South Dakota	$203	Idaho	$713	Idaho	$1,241	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, p. 424.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

EDUCATION

Education ranks first in state governmental expenditures, amounting to thirteen percent of total general government payments. State and local expenditures for education totaled two hundred ten billion dollars in 1986. The majority of this amount, sixty-eight percent, was used for elementary and secondary public schools; twenty-seven percent was spent on higher education; and, the remaining five percent was spent on "other" education costs.

Table 1 indicates the expenditure per pupil for elementary and secondary education. The expenditure per student in public schools has risen significantly over the past twenty-six years. In 1987, the estimated national average expenditure per student was $3,983, while in 1960, it was $375. The expenditure per pupil is varied among the states, ranging from a high of $8,842 in Alaska to a low of $2,455 in Utah. West Virginia's expenditure per pupil has also increased over the past twenty-six years, from $258 with a rank of forty-second in 1960 to a 1987 expenditure of $3,619 per pupil, and a rank of twenty-ninth.

Per capita public elementary and secondary school expenditures is found in Table 2. The national average increased from $84.27 per capita in 1960 to $601.93 per capita in 1986. West Virginia's rank in 1986, twenty-second, is much higher than in 1960 and 1970, when its rank was fortieth, and in 1980, thirtieth. The State's average in 1986, $595.95, in per capita spending for public elementary and secondary schools is about $6 below the national average.

Table 3 reports the public elementary and secondary school expenditures per $1,000 of personal income. This measure, personal income per $1,000, compared with state and local government expenditures on education, is a basic way to obtain an indication of the public's support of education. West Virginia, for all the years shown has been above the U.S. average ($43.83), and the State's ranking rose from eighth in 1980 to sixth in 1986 ($57.95).

Elementary and secondary school expenditures as a percentage of the amount spent by state and local governments is found in Table 4. Since 1960 there has been a notable drop in the percentage of funds being committed to education by the 50 states. In 1960 the national average was 29.2 percent, but since that high, it declined to 24.0 percent in 1986. West Virginia's position moved up in ranking in 1986 to fourth place from a ranking of twenty-fifth in 1980. With twenty-five percent of its funds committed to public education, West Virginia is above the national average for 1986.

Table 5 lists the average annual salaries for elementary and secondary school teachers. Teacher's salaries have risen significantly since 1960 when the U.S. average was $5,215 to 1987's national average of $26,551. Salaries for teachers in West Virginia in 1987 ($21,446), still lag behind the national level, by some $5,100. The State dropped from a 1980 ranking of forty-first to a ranking of forty-fourth in 1987.

Table 6 presents the pupil-teacher ratio in the classroom in the public schools. Generally, a low ratio number is desirable. Enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools declined in the last fifteen years, while the number of teachers increased. Therefore, the pupil-teacher ratio has dropped considerably. The national ratio between 1970 and 1986, fell from 20.4 to 16.5. Over the same period, the number of classroom students to teachers fell even more in West Virginia. West Virginia's pupil-teacher ratio for 1970 was 24.3, for a ranking of tenth, as compared to 1986 when the ratio was 14.3, with a ranking of forty-first.

Tables 7 through 14 include data for higher education. Institutions of higher education include publicly operated universities, colleges, junior colleges, and other schools beyond high school. The expenditure sums include state and local appropriations for higher education, student fees, dormitories, dining halls, and bookstores.

The per capita expenditures for state institutions of higher education is found in Table 7. The national average steadily increased from $18.05 in 1960 to $235.00 in 1986. West Virginia's rank in 1986, forty-third, is much lower than in 1960, twenty-seventh, and in 1970 at twenty-sixth. The State's average, $193.00, in per capita spending for higher education is some $42.00 below the national average. Alaska, followed by Wyoming, spends most for higher education, while Pennsylvania spends the least.

Table 8 reports spending per student in public institutions of higher education. For all years considered, West Virginia has remained above the national average in spending per student. In 1985, the State spent $4,469 per pupil and ranked thirtieth.

Table 9 indicates the amount of state and local funds for higher education per $1,000 of personal income. The U.S. average in 1986 was $17.08, while West Virginia's average was $18.74. The State ranked twenty-fourth in 1960, rose to fifteenth in 1970, dropped to thirtieth in 1980 and rose to twenty-ninth in 1986.

The percent of state and local spending for higher education is found in Table 10 . State and local government spending for higher education was the highest in 1970 (9.8 percent). The national average in 1986 was 7.9 percent. West Virginia, in 1986, was ranked thirty-sixth at 7.7 percent , below the national average.

Table 11 shows the number of public and private colleges in all fifty states. The number of institutions of higher education has risen considerably since 1960 (2,008) to 1985's U.S. total (3,331). This number includes both 4-year and 2-year colleges and universities. New York has the largest number (300) colleges and universities, followed closely by California (289). The states of Delaware, Nevada and Wyoming have the smallest number of institutions (8).

The total enrollment in colleges and universities is found in Table 12. Enrollment in colleges increased immensely between 1960 and 1980. Since 1980, enrollments have increased by only 1 percent from 12.1 million in 1980 to 12.2 million in 1985. The total number of students enrolled in West Virginia's colleges and universities rose from 26 thousand in 1960 to 63 thousand in 1970 and to 82 thousand in 1980. In 1985, enrollment in the State dropped to 76 thousand, due in part to the declining student population.

Table 13 reports the number of earned degrees conferred by institutions of higher education. The degrees include: bachelor's, first professional, master's and doctorates. The national total number of degrees earned in 1984 was 1,366,188. The total number of degrees earned in West Virginia in 1984 was 10,082, just 4 less than in 1980.

Table 14 lists the number of full-time state and local employees in education (elementary and secondary and higher) per 10,000 inhabitants. In West Virginia, the number of education employees has risen over 75 percent since 1960. One reason for this is that while there has been a decline in the population, the number of employees in education has risen. West Virginia has risen considerably in rank from twenty-fourth in 1970 to fourteenth in 1980 to ninth in 1986 (285.9).

TABLE 1

EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL FOR PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1987

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1987	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$375	U.S. Avg.	$783	U.S. Avg.	$2,094	U.S. Avg.	$3,983	
1	New York	$563	New York	$1,237	Alaska	$4,592	Alaska	$8,842	1
2	Alaska	$546	Alaska	$1,083	New York	$3,197	Wyoming	$6,253	2
3	New Jersey	$488	New Jersey	$963	New Jersey	$2,616	New York	$6,224	3
4	Delaware	$455	Vermont	$934	Massachusetts	$2,607	New Jersey	$6,177	4
5	Wyoming	$450	California	$922	Delaware	$2,568	Connecticut	$5,552	5
6	Oregon	$448	Rhode Island	$904	Pennsylvania	$2,567	Massachusetts	$4,856	6
7	Illinois	$438	Oregon	$891	Oregon	$2,459	Delaware	$4,776	7
8	Connecticut	$436	Iowa	$890	Wisconsin	$2,433	Pennsylvania	$4,691	8
9	Nevada	$430	Minnesota	$883	Wyoming	$2,433	Maryland	$4,660	9
10	Minnesota	$427	Connecticut	$882	Iowa	$2,430	Wisconsin	$4,607	10
11	Washington	$426	Maryland	$882	Montana	$2,421	Rhode Island	$4,574	11
12	California	$424	Pennsylvania	$876	Colorado	$2,409	Vermont	$4,459	12
13	Michigan	$423	Wisconsin	$875	Connecticut	$2,403	Oregon	$4,383	13
14	Rhode Island	$413	Hawaii	$851	Washington	$2,373	Hawaii	$4,372	14
15	Montana	$411	Michigan	$842	Kansas	$2,371	Minnesota	$4,239	15
16	Massachusetts	$410	Montana	$822	Rhode Island	$2,336	Kansas	$4,150	16
17	Arizona	$404	Wyoming	$810	Maryland	$2,248	Colorado	$4,107	17
18	Pennsylvania	$401	Illinois	$803	Minnesota	$2,208	Montana	$4,070	18
19	Wisconsin	$399	Delaware	$793	California	$2,173	Florida	$4,056	19
20	Colorado	$394	Arizona	$766	Michigan	$2,170	Illinois	$3,980	20
21	Maryland	$393	Nevada	$764	Illinois	$2,041	Michigan	$3,967	21
22	Ohio	$392	Massachusetts	$753	Nevada	$2,018	California	$3,887	22
23	Kansas	$372	Washington	$743	North Dakota	$2,007	Virginia	$3,809	23
	Louisiana	$372	New Mexico	$724	South Dakota	$1,943	Washington	$3,808	24
25	North Dakota	$370	Kansas	$721	New Mexico	$1,937	Ohio	$3,764	25
26	Iowa	$368	Missouri	$714	Nebraska	$1,929	Iowa	$3,740	26
27	Indiana	$364	Florida	$710	Ohio	$1,918	New Hampshire	$3,682	27
28	New Mexico	$363	Colorado	$695	Maine	$1,859	Maine	$3,650	28
29	New Hampshire	$348	New Hampshire	$692	Virginia	$1,859	WEST VIRGINIA	$3,619	29
30	South Dakota	$347	Virginia	$691	New Hampshire	$1,811	Texas	$3,551	30
31	Missouri	$344	Maine	$685	Missouri	$1,810	Nevada	$3,548	31
	Vermont	$344	Ohio	$680	North Carolina	$1,801	New Mexico	$3,537	32
33	Nebraska	$337	South Dakota	$657	Oklahoma	$1,798	North Carolina	$3,473	33
34	Hawaii	$330	Idaho	$629	Louisiana	$1,797	Nebraska	$3,437	34
	Texas	$330	WEST VIRGINIA	$626	Vermont	$1,772	Missouri	$3,345	35
36	Utah	$322	Indiana	$624	Indiana	$1,724	Indiana	$3,310	36
37	Florida	$318	North Dakota	$621	Hawaii	$1,694	South Dakota	$3,190	37
38	Oklahoma	$311	Louisiana	$620	Texas	$1,680	North Dakota	$3,174	38
39	Idaho	$290	Kentucky	$612	Utah	$1,609	Georgia	$3,167	39
40	Maine	$283	North Carolina	$609	WEST VIRGINIA	$1,590	Kentucky	$3,107	40
41	Virginia	$274	Georgia	$600	Idaho	$1,535	South Carolina	$3,096	41
42	WEST VIRGINIA	$258	Utah	$600	Georgia	$1,531	Oklahoma	$3,082	42
43	Georgia	$253	Texas	$581	Alabama	$1,472	Louisiana	$3,008	43
44	Alabama	$241	Tennessee	$560	Mississippi	$1,419	Tennessee	$2,842	44
45	North Carolina	$240	South Carolina	$555	South Carolina	$1,354	Arizona	$2,784	45
46	Tennessee	$238	Oklahoma	$540	Arkansas	$1,343	Arkansas	$2,772	46
47	Kentucky	$231	Arkansas	$534	Kentucky	$1,315	Alabama	$2,610	47
48	Arkansas	$225	Nebraska	$527	Tennessee	$1,306	Idaho	$2,555	48
49	South Carolina	$220	Mississippi	$476	Arizona	N/A	Mississippi	$2,534	49
50	Mississippi	$206	Alabama	$438	Florida	N/A	Utah	$2,455	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, 1970, 1981, U.S. Bureau of the Census.
RANKINGS OF THE STATES, 1987. National Education Association. Copyright 1987.

TABLE 2

PER CAPITA PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL EXPENDITURES
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$84.27	U.S. Avg.	$184.35	U.S. Avg.	$410.28	U.S. Avg.	$601.93	
1	Wyoming	$134.04	Alaska	$292.20	Alaska	$1,347.39	Alaska	$1,660.36	1
2	Delaware	$119.38	Minnesota	$241.90	Wyoming	$630.58	Wyoming	$1,206.73	2
3	Alaska	$116.67	Delaware	$237.52	Montana	$536.24	New York	$787.08	3
4	California	$110.24	New York	$235.49	Oregon	$500.91	Montana	$763.53	4
5	Utah	$108.26	Washington	$228.78	New York	$498.31	New Jersey	$710.01	5
6	Arizona	$107.06	Wyoming	$221.36	Washington	$491.30	Michigan	$707.09	6
7	Oregon	$106.88	Maryland	$220.52	New Mexico	$485.92	Minnesota	$703.29	7
8	Colorado	$106.71	Hawaii	$217.90	Utah	$478.64	New Mexico	$672.92	8
9	Nevada	$106.25	Michigan	$216.56	Michigan	$475.74	Oregon	$668.51	9
10	New Mexico	$104.59	Iowa	$215.06	Iowa	$465.25	Colorado	$666.66	10
11	Washington	$102.48	New Mexico	$207.01	Massachusetts	$462.55	Utah	$658.98	11
12	New York	$98.40	Nevada	$206.48	New Jersey	$462.19	Texas	$650.23	12
13	North Dakota	$96.53	California	$206.16	Minnesota	$460.40	Wisconsin	$648.19	13
14	Connecticut	$96.19	South Dakota	$203.64	Wisconsin	$455.92	Delaware	$642.31	14
15	Minnesota	$97.37	Oregon	$203.33	Colorado	$448.50	Arizona	$634.02	15
16	Michigan	$93.44	Connecticut	$206.26	Maryland	$439.87	Kansas	$620.40	16
17	Illinois	$87.95	Arizona	$195.96	Arizona	$432.92	North Dakota	$619.93	17
18	Montana	$87.46	Utah	$194.22	Connecticut	$421.93	Nebraska	$615.70	18
19	Kansas	$86.59	Kansas	$188.41	California	$421.14	Ohio	$612.86	19
20	Iowa	$86.24	Wisconsin	$188.17	Delaware	$419.42	Washington	$612.45	20
21	New Jersey	$86.19	Montana	$188.04	Nevada	$416.48	Virginia	$601.50	21
22	Indiana	$86.00	New Jersey	$185.62	Nebraska	$415.02	WEST VIRGINIA	$595.95	22
23	Vermont	$85.42	Indiana	$182.49	Illinois	$405.52	Massachusetts	$593.95	23
24	Hawaii	$85.05	Illinois	$182.36	Ohio	$401.44	Vermont	$590.30	24
25	Maryland	$83.79	Pennsylvania	$182.04	Pennsylvania	$401.24	California	$586.62	25
26	Louisiana	$83.27	Colorado	$181.56	North Dakota	$397.37	Oklahoma	$585.86	26
27	Pennsylvania	$82.90	Nebraska	$179.14	Texas	$396.68	Maryland	$584.78	27
28	Oklahoma	$81.65	North Dakota	$174.18	South Dakota	$391.92	Pennsylvania	$584.24	28
29	Ohio	$80.01	Florida	$171.74	Kansas	$389.34	Iowa	$569.69	29
30	Nebraska	$79.70	Massachusetts	$168.16	WEST VIRGINIA	$386.61	South Dakota	$568.81	30
31	Wisconsin	$79.59	Missouri	$167.44	Vermont	$373.35	Maine	$556.52	31
32	Florida	$77.78	Virginia	$167.18	Louisiana	$368.92	Connecticut	$553.52	32
33	South Dakota	$77.27	Ohio	$162.49	Rhode Island	$368.57	Nevada	$549.73	33
34	Idaho	$75.41	Vermont	$160.62	Virginia	$366.65	Rhode Island	$549.55	34
35	Texas	$71.44	Georgia	$158.90	Oklahoma	$259.33	Illinois	$545.49	35
36	Massachusetts	$70.68	Idaho	$156.48	Indiana	$356.25	Arkansas	$536.07	36
37	Maine	$70.43	Texas	$156.06	Maine	$352.82	North Carolina	$530.13	37
38	Virginia	$70.36	South Carolina	$155.94	North Carolina	$350.80	Indiana	$529.11	38
39	Missouri	$69.75	Maine	$151.29	Hawaii	$349.81	Georgia	$526.41	39
40	North Carolina	$65.11	WEST VIRGINIA	$148.98	Georgia	$345.41	Florida	$523.95	40
	WEST VIRGINIA	$65.11	Rhode Island	$148.30	Missouri	$343.60	Louisiana	$521.30	41
42	Mississippi	$64.59	Louisiana	$146.80	South Carolina	$340.20	New Hampshire	$517.90	42
43	Tennessee	$64.01	New Hampshire	$145.31	Florida	$339.74	South Carolina	$510.62	43
44	New Hampshire	$63.38	North Carolina	$142.87	Idaho	$336.69	Missouri	$505.77	44
45	Georgia	$60.67	Oklahoma	$142.01	Arkansas	$327.50	Idaho	$482.40	45
46	Rhode Island	$58.93	Kentucky	$138.33	New Hampshire	$324.24	Mississippi	$448.70	46
47	South Carolina	$57.15	Tennessee	$136.13	Kentucky	$314.06	Hawaii	$441.02	47
48	Alabama	$55.64	Mississippi	$127.28	Mississippi	$308.16	Alabama	$433.43	48
49	Arkansas	$54.64	Alabama	$124.28	Alabama	$302.08	Kentucky	$429.72	49
50	Kentucky	$53.30	Arkansas	$121.44	Tennessee	$300.79	Tennessee	$392.52	50

Source: GOVERNMENT FINANCES IN 1960, 1970, 1980, And 1986, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 3

PUBLIC ELEMENTARY & SECONDARY SCHOOL EXPENDITURES PER $1,000 PERSONAL INCOME 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$37.91	U.S. Avg.	$50.31	U.S. Avg.	$48.13	U.S. Avg.	$43.83	
1	New Mexico	$57.92	New Mexico	$73.05	Alaska	$118.32	Alaska	$93.57	1
2	Wyoming	$57.42	Alaska	$70.17	Utah	$71.08	Wyoming	$90.85	2
3	Utah	$56.69	Wyoming	$68.57	Montana	$69.87	Montana	$68.97	3
4	North Dakota	$55.44	Minnesota	$68.44	New Mexico	$67.32	Utah	$63.57	4
5	Mississippi	$55.07	South Dakota	$68.00	Wyoming	$66.52	New Mexico	$62.88	5
6	Arizona	$53.25	Utah	$65.68	Oregon	$58.39	WEST VIRGINIA	$57.95	6
7	Louisiana	$51.92	Iowa	$61.56	Arizona	$57.02	Oregon	$53.17	7
8	Indiana	$49.27	Arizona	$60.83	New York	$54.46	Michigan	$52.29	8
9	Oregon	$47.32	Montana	$60.11	WEST VIRGINIA	$54.46	Arizona	$51.58	9
10	Colorado	$45.99	Washington	$59.56	Washington	$54.09	Arkansas	$51.47	10
11	Minnesota	$45.95	Delaware	$58.69	Wisconsin	$53.57	North Dakota	$50.99	11
12	Vermont	$45.94	Oregon	$58.56	Iowa	$53.24	South Dakota	$50.96	12
13	Washington	$44.24	North Dakota	$58.09	Vermont	$52.81	Minnesota	$50.17	13
14	Oklahoma	$44.18	South Carolina	$57.56	South Dakota	$52.64	Wisconsin	$49.38	14
15	Montana	$43.35	Maryland	$56.40	Minnesota	$52.15	Vermont	$49.27	15
16	Iowa	$43.05	Michigan	$54.89	Mississippi	$51.77	Texas	$49.15	16
17	Alaska	$42.29	WEST VIRGINIA	$54.88	Massachusetts	$51.73	Mississippi	$49.07	17
18	Idaho	$41.99	Hawaii	$54.82	Maine	$51.40	New York	$49.01	18
19	South Dakota	$41.96	Wisconsin	$54.06	South Carolina	$51.29	South Carolina	$48.68	19
20	Kansas	$41.87	Mississippi	$53.91	Colorado	$51.25	Oklahoma	$47.95	20
21	Tennessee	$41.42	Colorado	$52.94	Louisiana	$50.91	Maine	$47.22	21
22	North Carolina	$41.36	New York	$52.78	Michigan	$50.88	Louisiana	$46.45	22
23	South Carolina	$40.92	Idaho	$52.62	North Carolina	$49.77	Ohio	$46.37	23
24	Arkansas	$40.76	Kansas	$52.34	Arkansas	$49.41	North Carolina	$46.18	24
25	Mississippi	$40.24	Florida	$52.06	Georgia	$48.34	Nebraska	$46.14	25
26	California	$40.22	Louisiana	$51.35	Texas	$48.00	Delaware	$45.81	26
27	Delaware	$39.62	Georgia	$51.16	North Dakota	$47.98	Colorado	$45.51	27
28	Florida	$39.13	Nebraska	$50.82	Maryland	$47.91	Kansas	$45.23	28
29	WEST VIRGINIA	$38.89	Virginia	$50.33	Nebraska	$47.67	Iowa	$44.73	29
30	Texas	$38.68	Maine	$50.32	New Jersey	$47.63	Washington	$44.68	30
31	Virginia	$38.08	Indiana	$50.23	Pennsylvania	$47.43	Pennsylvania	$43.61	31
32	Alabama	$38.06	Vermont	$50.09	Idaho	$46.39	Idaho	$43.30	32
33	Hawaii	$37.86	Pennsylvania	$49.72	Ohio	$46.35	Georgia	$42.87	33
34	Georgia	$37.74	Nevada	$49.53	Delaware	$45.98	Indiana	$42.55	34
35	Nebraska	$37.72	California	$49.31	Nevada	$45.05	Virginia	$41.95	35
36	Nevada	$37.36	Missouri	$48.69	Alabama	$44.78	New Jersey	$41.57	36
37	Maine	$37.06	Kentucky	$48.39	Oklahoma	$44.20	Alabama	$40.94	37
38	Wisconsin	$36.67	North Carolina	$48.30	Rhode Island	$44.15	Rhode Island	$39.79	38
39	Pennsylvania	$36.59	Texas	$47.32	Kentucky	$44.11	Kentucky	$39.72	39
40	New York	$35.29	Tennessee	$47.74	Virginia	$43.92	Florida	$39.17	40
41	Maryland	$35.00	Arkansas	$47.05	California	$43.72	Nevada	$39.04	41
42	Kentucky	$34.54	Alabama	$46.95	Florida	$43.71	Missouri	$38.47	42
43	Ohio	$34.21	Oklahoma	$46.44	Tennessee	$42.94	Maryland	$37.45	43
44	Illinois	$33.66	Connecticut	$44.71	Indiana	$42.26	California	$37.37	44
45	Connecticut	$33.60	New Jersey	$43.89	Illinois	$42.08	Illinois	$37.08	45
46	New Jersey	$32.34	Ohio	$43.11	Missouri	$42.07	Massachusetts	$36.32	46
47	Missouri	$31.79	New Hampshire	$43.06	Kansas	$42.06	New Hampshire	$35.62	47
48	New Hampshire	$30.56	Illinois	$42.81	Connecticut	$41.59	Tennessee	$35.21	48
49	Massachusetts	$28.06	Massachusetts	$42.10	Hawaii	$40.40	Hawaii	$32.17	49
50	Rhode Island	$26.45	Rhode Island	$40.06	New Hampshire	$40.32	Connecticut	$30.75	50

Source: GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1960, 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 4

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL EXPENDITURES AS PERCENT OF TOTAL STATE AND LOCAL SPENDING
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	29.2%	U.S. Avg.	28.5%	U.S. Avg.	21.4%	U.S. Avg.	24.0%	
1	Delaware	35.6%	Indiana	35.4%	Montana	27.0%	Texas	29.5%	1
2	Utah	35.3%	South Carolina	34.1%	New Mexico	26.0%	Arkansas	29.1%	2
3	Arizona	34.6%	Iowa	33.4%	Utah	26.5%	North Carolina	27.7%	3
4	New Mexico	33.9%	Minnesota	33.2%	Iowa	25.5%	WEST VIRGINIA	27.6%	4
5	Alaska	33.8%	Maryland	32.8%	Indiana	25.3%	Montana	27.4%	5
6	Indiana	33.6%	Florida	32.6%	Texas	24.9%	Virginia	27.2%	6
	New Jersey	33.6%	Michigan	32.0%	Arkansas	24.5%	Wyoming	27.0%	7
8	North Carolina	33.4%	South Dakota	31.9%	New Jersey	24.4%	Ohio	26.8%	8
9	Virginia	33.0%	Virginia	31.8%	Connecticut	24.1%	Pennsylvania	26.8%	9
10	Pennsylvania	32.3%	Nebraska	31.2%	Wyoming	24.1%	Utah	26.6%	10
11	Oregon	31.2%	Arizona	31.1%	Colorado	23.6%	Indiana	26.5%	11
	South Carolina	31.2%	Kansas	31.0%	Missouri	23.3%	Missouri	26.4%	12
13	Maryland	31.1%	Texas	31.0%	North Carolina	23.3%	Oklahoma	26.3%	13
14	Colorado	31.0%	New Mexico	30.9%	Ohio	23.0%	Kansas	26.0%	14
15	Connecticut	30.9%	North Carolina	30.8%	Wisconsin	22.9%	Colorado	26.0%	15
	Michigan	30.9%	New Jersey	30.7%	Virginia	22.8%	South Carolina	25.9%	16
17	Washington	30.8%	Utah	30.6%	Oregon	22.7%	Nebraska	25.7%	17
18	Illinois	30.7%	Pennsylvania	30.5%	Florida	22.6%	New Hampshire	25.6%	18
19	Texas	30.2%	Missouri	30.4%	Pennsylvania	22.6%	Michigan	25.5%	19
20	Missouri	30.1%	Ohio	30.4%	South Carolina	22.6%	New Jersey	25.4%	20
21	WEST VIRGINIA	30.0%	Illinois	30.3%	Oklahoma	22.3%	South Dakota	25.2%	21
22	Kansas	29.8%	Delaware	30.1%	Arizona	22.1%	Oregon	25.0%	22
23	Nebraska	29.7%	Washington	30.1%	Illinois	22.1%	New Mexico	25.0%	23
24	Tennessee	29.5%	Connecticut	30.0%	Idaho	21.9%	Arizona	25.0%	24
	Wyoming	29.5%	Oregon	29.4%	Maine	21.8%	Florida	24.7%	25
26	Iowa	29.3%	Georgia	29.1%	WEST VIRGINIA	21.8%	Idaho	24.4%	26
	Ohio	29.3%	Colorado	28.3%	South Dakota	21.7%	Maine	24.2%	27
28	California	29.0%	Montana	27.8%	Kansas	21.6%	Georgia	23.9%	28
29	Oklahoma	28.9%	Maine	27.4%	Minnesota	21.6%	Washington	23.9%	29
30	Minnesota	28.7%	Tennessee	27.4%	Maryland	21.4%	Wisconsin	23.8%	30
31	Mississippi	28.0%	Wisconsin	27.2%	Michigan	21.4%	Iowa	23.4%	31
32	Arkansas	27.6%	New Hampshire	27.1%	Massachusetts	21.3%	Illinois	23.2%	32
33	Florida	27.5%	WEST VIRGINIA	26.7%	Georgia	21.2%	Minnesota	23.1%	33
	Maine	27.5%	Idaho	26.5%	New Hampshire	21.2%	Vermont	23.0%	34
35	Wisconsin	27.4%	North Dakota	26.5%	Louisiana	21.1%	Mississippi	22.9%	35
36	Georgia	27.3%	Louisiana	26.0%	Delaware	20.8%	North Dakota	22.9%	
37	Kentucky	26.9%	Kentucky	25.9%	Vermont	20.6%	Delaware	22.8%	37
38	Idaho	26.5%	Arkansas	25.7%	Mississippi	20.4%	Maryland	22.7%	38
39	New York	26.3%	New York	25.6%	North Dakota	20.0%	Kentucky	22.4%	39
40	Montana	26.2%	Wyoming	25.3%	Alaska	19.8%	Massachusetts	21.9%	40
	North Dakota	26.2%	Oklahoma	24.7%	Washington	19.2%	New York	21.8%	41
42	Vermont	26.1%	Alabama	24.6%	Alabama	19.1%	Louisiana	21.5%	42
43	Louisiana	25.8%	California	24.5%	New York	19.1%	Connecticut	21.4%	43
44	Alabama	25.6%	Massachusetts	24.4%	Kentucky	18.9%	California	20.8%	44
	South Dakota	25.6%	Mississippi	24.3%	California	18.8%	Nevada	20.6%	45
46	Nevada	25.2%	Nevada	24.3%	Rhode Island	18.6%	Rhode Island	20.6%	46
47	Massachusetts	23.8%	Rhode Island	24.0%	Nevada	18.3%	Tennessee	20.5%	47
48	Hawaii	23.0%	Vermont	22.2%	Nebraska	17.5%	Alabama	20.4%	48
	New Hampshire	23.0%	Alaska	21.7%	Tennessee	16.9%	Alaska	17.6%	49
	Rhode Island	23.0%	Hawaii	21.0%	Hawaii	16.0%	Hawaii	16.3%	50

Source: GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1960, 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 5

AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES FOR CLASSROOM TEACHERS, PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1987

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1987	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$5,215	U.S. Avg.	$8,560	U.S. Avg.	$17,300	U.S. Avg.	$26,551	
1	California	$6,700	Alaska	$10,560	Alaska	$29,100	Alaska	$43,970	1
2	Alaska	$6,600	California	$10,155	Hawaii	$21,600	New York	$32,000	2
3	New York	$6,200	Michigan	$9,823	Michigan	$21,200	Michigan	$31,500	3
4	New Jersey	$5,930	Illinois	$9,700	Washington	$20,700	California	$31,219	4
5	Michigan	$5,925	New York	$9,700	New York	$20,400	Rhode Island	$31,079	5
6	Connecticut	$5,900	Hawaii	$9,440	California	$19,800	Connecticut	$28,902	6
7	Nevada	$5,800	Maryland	$9,383	Illinois	$19,400	Maryland	$28,893	7
8	Delaware	$5,789	Nevada	$9,248	Rhode Island	$19,400	New Jersey	$28,718	8
9	Illinois	$5,725	Indiana	$9,139	Maryland	$19,300	Massachusetts	$28,410	9
10	Arizona	$5,700	New Jersey	$9,125	Massachusetts	$18,700	Minnesota	$28,340	10
11	Maryland	$5,680	Connecticut	$9,080	Wyoming	$18,700	Illinois	$28,238	11
12	Indiana	$5,618	Washington	$9,025	New Jersey	$18,300	Wyoming	$28,103	12
13	Rhode Island	$5,600	Wisconsin	$9,000	Indiana	$18,100	Wisconsin	$27,976	13
14	Hawaii	$5,550	Oregon	$8,975	Minnesota	$18,100	Washington	$27,527	14
15	Washington	$5,510	Delaware	$8,900	Pennsylvania	$17,700	Delaware	$27,467	15
16	Massachusetts	$5,500	Rhode Island	$8,808	Oregon	$17,500	Pennsylvania	$27,422	16
	Oregon	$5,500	Arizona	$8,715	Colorado	$17,400	Colorado	$27,387	17
18	New Mexico	$5,400	Massachusetts	$8,700	Connecticut	$17,400	Nevada	$26,960	18
19	Ohio	$5,367	Pennsylvania	$8,700	Arizona	$17,200	Hawaii	$26,815	19
20	Minnesota	$5,325	Minnesota	$8,600	Delaware	$17,200	Oregon	$26,690	20
21	Pennsylvania	$5,250	Iowa	$8,536	Nevada	$17,100	Ohio	$26,288	21
22	Colorado	$5,175	Florida	$8,300	Wisconsin	$16,700	Indiana	$26,083	22
23	Wisconsin	$5,075	Wyoming	$8,282	Utah	$16,600	Arizona	$25,972	23
24	Louisiana	$4,975	Ohio	$8,242	Iowa	$16,200	Virginia	$25,473	24
25	Florida	$4,960	Virginia	$8,000	Ohio	$16,200	Texas	$24,588	25
26	Wyoming	$4,953	Vermont	$7,960	North Carolina	$15,900	Georgia	$24,200	26
27	Utah	$4,950	New Mexico	$7,840	New Mexico	$15,700	New Mexico	$23,977	27
28	Oklahoma	$4,765	Missouri	$7,825	Florida	$15,600	Florida	$23,785	28
29	Montana	$4,680	New Hampshire	$7,715	Kentucky	$15,600	North Carolina	$23,775	29
30	Missouri	$4,675	Montana	$7,650	Georgia	$15,400	Alabama	$23,500	30
31	Iowa	$4,582	Kansas	$7,620	Montana	$15,400	Missouri	$23,468	31
32	Kansas	$4,575	WEST VIRGINIA	$7,610	Alabama	$15,200	Kansas	$23,427	32
33	New Hampshire	$4,569	Colorado	$7,600	Missouri	$15,200	Montana	$23,206	33
34	Texas	$4,490	Utah	$7,600	Texas	$15,200	South Carolina	$23,190	34
35	Vermont	$4,450	Maine	$7,575	Idaho	$15,100	Utah	$23,035	35
36	Idaho	$4,400	Nebraska	$7,526	Kansas	$15,100	Tennessee	$22,627	36
37	Virginia	$4,300	North Carolina	$7,444	Louisiana	$15,000	Kentucky	$22,612	37
38	Maine	$4,210	Texas	$7,275	Tennessee	$15,000	Iowa	$22,603	38
39	North Carolina	$4,100	Tennessee	$7,200	Nebraska	$14,900	Nebraska	$22,063	39
40	Georgia	$4,078	Georgia	$7,170	Virginia	$14,900	Oklahoma	$22,060	40
41	Kentucky	$4,069	Kentucky	$7,125	WEST VIRGINIA	$14,700	New Hampshire	$22,011	41
42	Tennessee	$4,065	Louisiana	$6,990	Oklahoma	$14,600	Vermont	$21,835	42
43	Nebraska	$3,990	Oklahoma	$6,987	South Carolina	$14,000	Idaho	$21,480	43
44	WEST VIRGINIA	$3,980	Idaho	$6,884	North Dakota	$13,900	WEST VIRGINIA	$21,446	44
45	Alabama	$3,850	Alabama	$6,817	Maine	$13,700	North Dakota	$21,284	45
46	North Dakota	$3,800	North Dakota	$6,760	South Dakota	$13,600	Maine	$21,257	46
47	South Carolina	$3,725	South Carolina	$6,750	Arkansas	$13,300	Louisiana	$20,054	47
48	South Dakota	$3,675	South Dakota	$6,300	Mississippi	$13,000	Arkansas	$19,904	48
49	Arkansas	$3,550	Arkansas	$6,273	Vermont	$13,000	Mississippi	$19,447	49
50	Mississippi	$3,415	Mississippi	$5,870	New Hampshire	$12,900	South Dakota	$18,781	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, 1970, 1981, U.S. Bureau of the Census.
RANKINGS OF THE STATES, 1987. National Education Association. Copyright 1987.

TABLE 6

PUPIL-TEACHER RATIO
PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	24.2	U.S. Avg.	20.4	U.S. Avg.	19.0	U.S. Avg.	16.5	
1	Mississippi	29.8	Utah	27.0	Utah	23.4	California	22.7	1
2	Hawaii	28.9	Tennessee	26.3	Michigan	23.1	Utah	22.5	2
3	Georgia	28.2	Ohio	25.2	California	22.9	Idaho	19.6	3
4	North Carolina	28.1	Nevada	25.1	Nevada	22.4	Washington	19.3	4
5	South Carolina	27.8	Kentucky	24.8	Washington	21.8	Arizona	19.0	5
6	Alabama	27.5	Washington	24.6	Hawaii	21.1	Michigan	19.0	
7	Missouri	27.3	Hawaii	24.5	Tennessee	21.0	Nevada	18.8	7
8	Oklahoma	26.6	California	24.4	Arizona	20.9	Alabama	18.7	8
9	Utah	26.6	North Carolina	24.4	Idaho	20.9	Tennessee	18.6	9
10	Florida	25.9	Indiana	24.3	South Carolina	20.8	Hawaii	18.2	10
	Indiana	25.9	WEST VIRGINIA	24.3	Alabama	20.6	Alaska	18.1	11
12	Pennsylvania	25.8	Arizona	24.2	North Carolina	20.6	Mississippi	18.1	12
13	California	25.8	Missouri	24.2	Georgia	20.5	North Carolina	17.5	13
14	Louisiana	25.3	Texas	24.1	Ohio20.4	17.0	Georgia	17.2	14
15	WEST VIRGINIA	25.0	Massachusetts	24.0	Colorado	20.2	New Mexico	17.2	
16	Ohio	24.8	New Mexico	24.0	Kentucky	20.2	Indiana	17.0	16
17	Texas	24.7	Arkansas	23.7	Indiana	20.1	Oregon	16.9	17
18	Arkansas	24.5	New Hampshire	23.7	Florida	20.0	Louisiana	16.9	
19	Virginia	24.4	Oklahoma	23.6	New Mexico	20.0	Ohio	16.8	19
20	Wisconsin	24.2	Mississippi	23.6	Maine	19.3	Colorado	16.7	20
21	Rhode Island	24.0	Georgia	23.6	Arkansas	18.9	Kentucky	16.7	
22	Maine	23.9	Alabama	23.5	Louisiana	18.8	South Carolina	16.3	22
23	Washington	23.9	Colorado	23.5	Oregon	18.8	Texas	16.2	23
24	New Mexico	23.8	Michigan	23.3	Illinois	18.6	Minnesota	16.0	24
25	Nevada	23.8	South Carolina	23.3	Maryland	18.6	Arkansas	15.9	25
26	Kentucky	23.4	Delaware	23.0	New Hampshire	18.6	Maryland	15.9	
	Minnesota	23.4	Florida	23.0	Mississippi	18.1	Florida	15.9	
28	Colorado	23.3	Alaska	22.8	Texas	18.1	Virginia	15.3	28
29	Michigan	23.2	Idaho	22.8	Pennsylvania	18.0	Pennsylvania	15.1	29
30	Alaska	22.9	Illinois	22.7	Minnesota	17.9	Illinois	15.1	
31	Massachusetts	22.8	Maryland	22.5	Missouri	17.9	Oklahoma	15.1	
32	Illinois	22.4	Pennsylvania	22.5	WEST VIRGINIA	17.9	Maine	14.9	32
33	New York	22.2	Maine	22.2	Oklahoma	17.7	South Dakota	14.8	33
34	Connecticut	22.1	Rhode Island	22.2	Delaware	17.3	Iowa	14.8	
35	Vermont	21.8	New Jersey	22.1	New York	17.3	Wisconsin	14.8	
36	Iowa	21.7	Oregon	22.0	Alaska	17.2	Missouri	14.7	36
37	Kansas	21.6	Minnesota	21.8	Iowa	17.0	Delaware	14.7	
38	New Hampshire	21.4	Connecticut	21.5	Virginia	16.8	North Dakota	14.6	38
39	Montana	20.5	Kansas	21.2	Connecticut	16.6	New Hampshire	14.3	39
40	Idaho	20.4	Virginia	21.2	Kansas	16.6	Nebraska	14.3	
	Maryland	20.4	Louisiana	21.1	Rhode Island	16.5	WEST VIRGINIA	14.3	
	Oregon	20.4	Wisconsin	21.1	Montana	16.4	Montana	14.3	42
43	New Jersey	20.1	North Dakota	21.0	New Jersey	16.4	Rhode Island	14.1	43
44	Nebraska	19.6	Montana	20.9	North Dakota	16.4	Kansas	13.7	44
45	Delaware	19.5	Nebraska	20.1	South Dakota	16.3	New Jersey	13.5	45
46	South Dakota	18.6	New York	20.1	Wyoming	16.0	Massachusetts	13.4	46
47	Wyoming	18.5	Iowa	20.0	Vermont	15.8	Connecticut	13.3	47
48	North Dakota	18.3	Wyoming	19.3	Wisconsin	15.8	Wyoming	13.3	
49	Tennessee	16.2	South Dakota	18.7	Massachusetts	15.7	New York	13.2	49
50	Arizona	14.5	Vermont	18.5	Nebraska	15.6	Vermont	12.9	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961, 1970, and 1981.
DIGEST OF EDUCATION STATISTICS, Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, 1987.
RANKINGS OF THE STATES, 1987. National Education Association. Copyright 1987.

Note: Excludes supervisors, principals, librarians, etc.

TABLE 7

PER CAPITA GENERAL EXPENDITURES FOR STATE INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$18.05	U.S. Avg.	$63.60	U.S. Avg.	$149.75	U.S. Avg.	$234.51	
1	Utah	$35.57	Alaska	$131.10	Alaska	$434.34	Alaska	$523.22	1
2	Wyoming	$31.81	Utah	$117.27	Wyoming	$262.51	Wyoming	$429.80	2
3	North Dakota	$31.32	Wyoming	$116.42	Delaware	$257.58	Delaware	$382.04	3
4	New Mexico	$30.17	Vermont	$114.40	Utah	$235.62	North Dakota	$380.07	4
5	Colorado	$29.76	Hawaii	$110.98	North Dakota	$225.66	New Mexico	$365.68	5
6	California	$29.27	Wisconsin	$108.82	Hawaii	$218.59	Utah	$352.76	6
7	Nevada	$28.07	New Mexico	$104.83	Wisconsin	$217.45	Wisconsin	$337.98	7
8	South Dakota	$27.45	Arizona	$104.79	Arizona	$215.46	Vermont	$335.19	8
9	Montana	$26.81	Colorado	$103.83	Oregon	$209.61	Iowa	$331.59	9
10	Washington	$26.46	Washington	$100.83	Washington	$208.87	Arizona	$323.45	10
11	Oregon	$26.39	Oregon	$97.91	Vermont	$208.23	Hawaii	$303.80	11
12	Michigan	$26.34	North Dakota	$96.01	Iowa	$206.18	Kansas	$296.92	12
13	Indiana	$26.01	Delaware	$93.46	Colorado	$201.86	Michigan	$295.69	13
14	Minnesota	$25.65	Michigan	$88.96	New Mexico	$198.07	Washington	$290.61	14
15	Arizona	$25.49	Minnesota	$86.43	California	$195.53	Oregon	$290.29	15
16	Alaska	$23.45	Kansas	$83.83	Michigan	$186.95	California	$288.23	16
17	Vermont	$22.82	South Dakota	$82.56	Nebraska	$182.85	North Carolina	$279.67	17
18	Kansas	$21.47	Indiana	$82.18	Oklahoma	$173.35	Nebraska	$279.65	18
19	Oklahoma	$21.43	Iowa	$74.85	Kansas	$172.77	Colorado	$263.92	19
20	Iowa	$20.12	California	$73.87	North Carolina	$171.05	Minnesota	$259.95	20
21	Louisiana	$19.86	Kentucky	$72.41	Texas	$169.97	Texas	$259.82	21
22	New Hampshire	$19.60	Oklahoma	$71.96	Minnesota	$168.82	Alabama	$257.00	22
23	Wisconsin	$18.77	Montana	$69.67	South Dakota	$165.87	Oklahoma	$253.74	23
24	Delaware	$18.60	Idaho	$69.09	South Carolina	$160.84	Maryland	$249.28	24
25	Nebraska	$17.57	Nebraska	$68.16	Mississippi	$160.03	Virginia	$248.14	25
26	Idaho	$17.09	WEST VIRGINIA	$67.76	Alabama	$158.87	Idaho	$245.72	26
27	WEST VIRGINIA	$16.82	New Hampshire	$67.41	Virginia	$155.39	Indiana	$245.25	27
28	Hawaii	$16.58	Illinois	$67.39	Idaho	$154.42	South Carolina	$244.46	28
29	North Carolina	$14.52	Nevada	$63.31	Indiana	$152.82	Ohio	$226.64	29
30	Mississippi	$15.38	North Carolina	$62.89	Maryland	$152.41	Mississippi	$221.53	30
31	Texas	$15.22	Alabama	$59.33	Kentucky	$149.20	Montana	$213.65	31
32	Virginia	$15.17	Mississippi	$58.45	Rhode Island	$141.39	Louisiana	$212.55	32
33	Arkansas	$14.33	Georgia	$58.28	Nevada	$140.89	Rhode Island	$210.76	33
34	Illinois	$13.09	Texas	$57.44	Ohio	$134.42	Georgia	$210.40	34
35	Georgia	$12.93	Missouri	$57.23	WEST VIRGINIA	$132.95	Kentucky	$209.68	35
36	Alabama	$12.76	Ohio	$57.06	Louisiana	$131.80	Illinois	$206.59	36
37	Maryland	$12.70	Rhode Island	$56.08	New Hampshire	$129.63	Tennessee	$205.06	37
38	Kentucky	$12.60	Louisiana	$55.19	Montana	$129.21	Maine	$202.26	38
39	Ohio	$11.46	Maryland	$54.70	Illinois	$126.63	Arkansas	$200.87	39
40	Maine	$11.15	Tennessee	$52.47	Tennessee	$123.53	Nevada	$197.89	40
41	South Carolina	$11.12	Virginia	$51.40	New York	$121.33	New York	$195.38	41
	Florida	$11.12	New York	$50.75	Missouri	$114.18	South Dakota	$193.26	42
43	Connecticut	$10.92	Florida	$47.94	Arkansas	$112.80	WEST VIRGINIA	$192.74	43
44	Missouri	$10.81	Maine	$47.88	Georgia	$111.39	New Jersey	$178.23	44
45	Rhode Island	$10.59	Arkansas	$45.02	Florida	$108.16	Missouri	$176.52	45
46	Tennessee	$10.51	South Carolina	$43.76	Maine	$106.97	New Hampshire	$167.25	46
47	Pennsylvania	$8.51	Connecticut	$38.59	New Jersey	$100.94	Massachusetts	$157.16	47
48	New Jersey	$7.20	New Jersey	$38.57	Connecticut	$93.83	Connecticut	$149.56	48
49	New York	$6.26	Massachusetts	$37.56	Massachusetts	$75.78	Florida	$132.90	49
50	Massachusetts	$5.80	Pennsylvania	$32.89	Pennsylvania	$70.71	Pennsylvania	$125.38	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 8

DIRECT GENERAL EXPENDITURES OF STATE & LOCAL GOVERNMENTS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION PER STUDENT
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$893	U.S. Avg.	$2,029	U.S. Avg.	$3,578	U.S. Avg.	$4,272	
1	Alaska	$2,292	Alaska	$4,515	Alaska	$8,432	Alaska	$10,219	1
2	Nevada	$1,932	Vermont	$4,067	Iowa	$6,160	Wyoming	$7,930	2
3	Wyoming	$1,750	Indiana	$3,162	Vermont	$5,911	Delaware	$6,918	3
4	New Mexico	$1,641	New Hampshire	$3,148	Wyoming	$5,858	New Mexico	$6,606	4
5	North Dakota	$1,494	Iowa	$3,112	Utah	$5,775	North Dakota	$6,467	5
6	Montana	$1,399	Kentucky	$3,078	Delaware	$5,417	Georgia	$5,870	6
7	Michigan	$1,352	Wisconsin	$2,832	New Hampshire	$4,954	Hawaii	$5,864	7
8	California	$1,334	New Mexico	$2,631	Hawaii	$4,871	Iowa	$5,820	8
9	South Dakota	$1,290	Georgia	$2,626	Kentucky	$4,754	South Carolina	$5,724	9
10	Washington	$1,239	North Carolina	$2,600	South Dakota	$4,708	Arkansas	$5,515	10
11	Indiana	$1,233	Hawaii	$2,593	New Mexico	$4,673	Colorado	$5,461	11
12	Minnesota	$1,175	Wyoming	$2,575	South Carolina	$4,658	Texas	$5,436	12
13	Colorado	$1,169	Delaware	$2,572	North Dakota	$4,650	Wisconsin	$5,420	13
14	Delaware	$1,162	Minnesota	$2,550	Mississippi	$4,448	Vermont	$5,353	14
15	Mississippi	$1,133	Utah	$2,503	Indiana	$4,434	Mississippi	$5,327	15
16	Louisiana	$1,132	Nevada	$2,400	North Carolina	$4,430	Idaho	$5,325	16
17	Kansas	$1,093	Illinois	$2,377	Wisconsin	$4,350	Washington	$5,260	17
18	Idaho	$1,082	Alabama	$2,367	Georgia	$4,341	Oregon	$5,254	18
19	Oregon	$1,081	South Carolina	$2,364	Alabama	$4,301	Alabama	$5,211	19
20	North Carolina	$1,047	Michigan	$2,308	Idaho	$4,226	Kentucky	$5,121	20
21	WEST VIRGINIA	$1,042	South Dakota	$2,305	Minnesota	$4,146	North Carolina	$5,024	21
22	Virginia	$1,038	WEST VIRGINIA	$2,288	Louisiana	$4,053	Louisiana	$5,015	22
23	Wisconsin	$1,034	Ohio	$2,193	Colorado	$4,005	Montana	$4,883	23
24	Arkansas	$1,022	Kansas	$2,166	Texas	$3,941	Kansas	$4,873	24
25	Arizona	$1,019	Washington	$2,147	Oregon	$3,939	Utah	$4,863	25
26	Georgia	$1,016	Colorado	$2,142	Nebraska	$3,906	Indiana	$4,749	26
27	Hawaii	$1,010	Rhode Island	$2,127	Arkansas	$3,899	Minnesota	$4,584	27
28	Vermont	$995	New York	$2,119	Oklahoma	$3,822	Virginia	$4,518	28
29	Iowa	$988	Tennessee	$2,075	Rhode Island	$3,815	California	$4,478	29
30	Kentucky	$977	Maine	$2,060	Michigan	$3,811	WEST VIRGINIA	$4,469	30
31	Utah	$941	Oregon	$2,033	Ohio	$3,801	Michigan	$4,464	31
32	New Hampshire	$937	North Dakota	$2,031	New York	$3,782	Oklahoma	$4,462	32
33	Texas	$932	Missouri	$2,024	Maine	$3,771	Tennessee	$4,452	33
34	Alabama	$910	Mississippi	$2,018	WEST VIRGINIA	$3,640	Maryland	$4,449	34
35	Florida	$907	Oklahoma	$2,014	Tennessee	$3,617	Nebraska	$4,356	35
36	Oklahoma	$868	Arkansas	$1,995	Missouri	$3,398	Arizona	$4,336	36
37	Nebraska	$866	Louisiana	$1,988	Virginia	$3,370	Ohio	$4,307	37
38	Maine	$852	Nebraska	$1,983	Kansas	$3,347	New Jersey	$4,089	38
39	South Carolina	$849	Virginia	$1,977	Maryland	$3,294	South Dakota	$3,918	39
40	Maryland	$796	New Jersey	$1,963	Montana	$3,260	Maine	$3,889	40
41	Ohio	$782	Massachuetts	$1,874	Florida	$3,151	Florida	$3,766	41
42	Illinois	$718	Maryland	$1,817	Washington	$3,125	Nevada	$3,574	42
43	Missouri	$595	Montana	$1,805	Arizona	$3,018	Missouri	$3,330	43
44	Tennessee	$593	Idaho	$1,804	New Jersey	$3,009	Illinois	$3,243	44
45	Connecticut	$545	Texas	$1,774	Connecticut	$2,982	New York	$3,159	45
46	New Jersey	$511	Florida	$1,734	Illinois	$2,943	Connecticut	$2,802	46
47	Pennsylvania	$505	Arizona	$1,721	Pennsylvania	$2,869	Rhode Island	$2,670	47
48	New York	$499	Pennsylvania	$1,667	California	$2,861	Pennsylvania	$2,508	48
49	Rhode Island	$468	Connecticut	$1,604	Nevada	$2,794	New Hampshire	$2,312	49
50	Massachusetts	$225	California	$1,310	Massachusetts	$2,366	Massachusetts	$2,074	50

Source: "GOVERNMENTAL-FINANCES" in 1960, 1969-70, 1979-80, and 1984-85.
STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961, 1971, 1981, U.S. Bureau of the Census.
DIGEST OF EDUCATION STATISTICS, 1985-86, p. 90. U.S. Dept. of Education, Center for Statistics.

TABLE 9

STATE AND LOCAL HIGHER EDUCATION SPENDING
PER $1,000 PERSONAL INCOME
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$8.01	U.S. Avg.	$17.36	U.S. Avg.	$15.68	U.S. Avg.	$17.08	
1	Utah	$18.52	Utah	$39.66	Alaska	$33.82	New Mexico	$34.17	1
2	North Dakota	$18.12	New Mexico	$36.99	Utah	$30.72	Utah	$34.03	2
3	New Mexico	$16.59	Wyoming	$36.07	Vermont	$26.54	Wyoming	$32.36	3
4	Mississippi	$15.72	Vermont	$35.69	North Dakota	$25.76	North Dakota	$31.26	4
5	South Dakota	$14.89	Arizona	$32.53	New Mexico	$25.20	Alaska	$29.48	5
6	Wyoming	$14.84	North Dakota	$32.02	Delaware	$24.84	Vermont	$27.98	6
7	California	$13.76	Alaska	$31.48	Arizona	$24.45	Delaware	$27.25	7
8	Colorado	$13.63	Wisconsin	$31.27	Mississippi	$24.26	Arizona	$26.31	8
9	Montana	$13.38	Colorado	$30.28	Wyoming	$23.99	Iowa	$26.03	9
10	Arizona	$13.21	Oregon	$28.21	Wisconsin	$23.20	Wisconsin	$25.75	10
11	Minnesota	$12.65	Hawaii	$27.94	Oregon	$22.45	North Carolina	$24.36	11
12	Kansas	$12.63	South Dakota	$27.57	South Carolina	$22.08	Alabama	$24.27	12
13	Washington	$12.35	Washington	$26.26	Iowa	$21.98	Mississippi	$24.23	13
14	Louisiana	$12.34	Kentucky	$25.33	North Carolina	$21.82	South Carolina	$23.30	14
15	Vermont	$12.24	WEST VIRGINIA	$24.96	Hawaii	$21.58	Oregon	$23.09	15
16	Michigan	$11.89	Mississippi	$24.76	Alabama	$21.17	Hawaii	$22.16	16
17	Oregon	$11.71	Minnesota	$24.46	South Dakota	$21.15	Idaho	$22.06	17
18	Oklahoma	$11.60	Oklahoma	$23.54	Washington	$20.21	Michigan	$21.86	18
19	Indiana	$11.45	Kansas	$23.28	Colorado	$20.09	Kansas	$21.65	19
20	Arkansas	$10.68	Idaho	$23.26	Kentucky	$19.55	Washington	$21.20	20
21	Idaho	$10.37	Delaware	$23.08	Nebraska	$19.48	Nebraska	$20.96	21
22	Iowa	$10.25	Indiana	$22.63	Idaho	$19.12	Oklahoma	$20.77	22
23	North Carolina	$10.08	Michigan	$22.56	Oklahoma	$18.97	Indiana	$19.72	23
24	WEST VIRGINIA	$10.07	Alabama	$22.42	Michigan	$18.74	Texas	$19.64	24
25	Kentucky	$9.93	Montana	$22.38	California	$17.83	Kentucky	$19.38	25
26	Nevada	$9.77	Iowa	$21.43	Texas	$17.76	Montana	$19.30	26
27	Nebraska	$9.67	North Carolina	$21.26	Minnesota	$17.32	Arkansas	$19.28	27
28	New Hampshire	$9.42	New Hampshire	$19.97	Kansas	$17.26	Louisiana	$18.94	28
29	Texas	$9.35	Nebraska	$19.33	Indiana	$17.06	WEST VIRGINIA	$18.74	29
30	Wisconsin	$9.03	Louisiana	$19.31	WEST VIRGINIA	$17.00	Minnesota	$18.54	30
31	Alabama	$8.72	Georgia	$18.76	Virginia	$16.50	Tennessee	$18.40	31
32	Alaska	$8.43	Tennessee	$18.40	Tennessee	$15.96	California	$18.36	32
33	Virginia	$8.19	California	$17.67	Louisiana	$15.54	Colorado	$18.02	33
34	Georgia	$8.03	Texas	$17.64	Arkansas	$15.48	South Dakota	$17.31	34
35	South Carolina	$8.02	Arkansas	$17.45	Montana	$15.11	Virginia	$17.31	35
36	Hawaii	$7.28	Missouri	$16.64	Rhode Island	$14.92	Maine	$17.16	36
37	Tennessee	$6.79	South Carolina	$16.16	Maryland	$14.54	Ohio	$17.15	37
38	Delaware	$6.14	Maine	$15.94	New Hampshire	$14.17	Georgia	$17.13	38
39	Florida	$6.12	Illinois	$15.82	Ohio	$14.17	Maryland	$15.97	39
40	Ohio	$6.02	Virginia	$15.48	Georgia	$13.76	Rhode Island	$15.26	40
41	Maine	$5.84	Nevada	$15.17	Maine	$13.46	Nevada	$14.05	41
42	Maryland	$5.60	Rhode Island	$15.16	Nevada	$13.10	Illinois	$14.04	42
43	Illinois	$5.44	Ohio	$15.14	Missouri	$12.68	Missouri	$13.43	43
44	Missouri	$5.14	Florida	$14.53	Illinois	$12.00	New York	$12.17	44
45	Rhode Island	$4.77	Maryland	$13.99	Florida	$11.88	New Hampshire	$11.50	45
46	Connecticut	$3.80	New York	$11.38	New York	$11.79	New Jersey	$10.43	46
47	Pennsylvania	$3.76	Massachusetts	$9.41	New Jersey	$9.21	Florida	$9.93	47
48	New York	$3.74	New Jersey	$9.12	Connecticut	$7.99	Massahcusetts	$9.61	48
49	New Jersey	$2.69	Pennsylvania	$8.99	Pennsylvania	$7.48	Pennsylvania	$9.36	49
50	Massachusetts	$2.32	Connecticut	$8.49	Massachusetts	$7.47	Connecticut	$8.31	50

Source: GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1960, 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.
"SURVEY OF CURRENT BUSINESS", U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis, 1980, 1986.

TABLE 10

HIGHER EDUCATION EXPENDITURES AS PERCENT OF TOTAL STATE AND LOCAL SPENDING 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	6.2%	U.S. Avg.	9.8%	U.S. Avg.	7.8%	U.S. Avg.	7.9%	
1	Utah	11.5%	Utah	18.4%	Utah	13.0%	North Dakota	12.9%	1
2	California	9.9%	Arizona	16.6%	Delaware	12.8%	New Mexico	12.4%	2
3	Indiana	9.8%	Colorado	16.2%	Vermont	11.5%	Delaware	12.3%	3
4	New Mexico	9.7%	Indiana	15.9%	North Dakota	11.4%	Iowa	12.1%	4
5	Colorado	9.2%	Vermont	15.8%	North Carolina	11.3%	Vermont	11.7%	5
6	Michigan	9.1%	Wisconsin	15.7%	Arizona	11.0%	North Carolina	11.4%	6
	South Dakota	9.1%	New Mexico	15.6%	Wisconsin	10.9%	Wisconsin	11.2%	7
8	Kansas	9.0%	North Dakota	14.6%	Indiana	10.8%	Kansas	11.1%	8
9	Arizona	8.6%	Oregon	14.1%	Iowa	10.8%	Idaho	11.0%	9
	North Dakota	8.6%	Kansas	13.8%	New Mexico	10.8%	Indiana	11.0%	
	Washington	8.6%	Kentucky	13.6%	Oklahoma	10.7%	Utah	10.7%	11
12	Montana	8.1%	North Carolina	13.5%	South Carolina	10.7%	Arizona	10.4%	12
	North Carolina	8.1%	Washington	13.3%	Texas	10.7%	Alabama	10.2%	13
14	Mississippi	8.0%	Wyoming	13.3%	Colorado	10.6%	Virginia	10.2%	
15	Minnesota	7.9%	Michigan	13.1%	Mississippi	10.6%	Mississippi	10.0%	15
16	WEST VIRGINIA	7.8%	South Dakota	12.9%	Alabama	10.0%	Hawaii	9.9%	16
17	Kentucky	7.7%	Oklahoma	12.5%	Hawaii	10.0%	Texas	9.9%	
	Oregon	7.7%	New Hampshire	12.5%	Idaho	10.0%	Oklahoma	9.7%	18
19	Oklahoma	7.6%	WEST VIRGINIA	12.1%	Wyoming	10.0%	Arkansas	9.6%	19
	Nebraska	7.6%	Nebraska	11.9%	Kansas	9.6%	Kentucky	9.6%	
	Wyoming	7.6%	Minnesota	11.9%	Virginia	9.6%	South Carolina	9.6%	
22	Texas	7.3%	Alabama	11.8%	Oregon	9.5%	Michigan	9.4%	22
23	Arkansas	7.2%	Delaware	11.8%	South Dakota	9.2%	Oregon	9.2%	23
24	New Hampshire	7.1%	Idaho	11.7%	Kentucky	9.0%	Wyoming	8.7%	24
	Virginia	7.1%	Iowa	11.6%	California	8.7%	Colorado	8.6%	25
26	Iowa	7.0%	Texas	11.4%	Connecticut	8.7%	Maryland	8.6%	
	Vermont	7.0%	Mississippi	11.2%	New Hampshire	8.5%	California	8.4%	27
28	Wisconsin	6.8%	Illinois	11.2%	Arkansas	8.4%	Ohio	8.3%	28
29	Alaska	6.7%	Georgia	10.7%	Michigan	8.4%	Missouri	8.2%	29
30	Idaho	6.6%	Ohio	10.7%	Washington	8.2%	Nebraska	8.2%	
	Nevada	6.6%	Hawaii	10.7%	Minnesota	7.9%	Washington	8.2%	
32	Louisiana	6.1%	Tennessee	10.6%	Missouri	7.7%	Georgia	7.9%	32
	South Carolina	6.1%	Missouri	10.4%	Nebraska	7.7%	Maine	7.9%	
34	Alabama	5.9%	Montana	10.4%	Ohio	7.7%	South Dakota	7.9%	
35	Georgia	5.8%	Virginia	9.9%	Louisiana	7.5%	Tennessee	7.8%	35
36	Delaware	5.5%	Louisiana	9.8%	WEST VIRGINIA	7.5%	WEST VIRGINIA	7.7%	36
37	Ohio	5.1%	Alaska	9.7%	Maryland	7.4%	Illinois	7.6%	37
38	Illinois	5.0%	South Carolina	9.6%	Florida	7.2%	Louisiana	7.6%	
	Maryland	5.0%	Arkansas	9.5%	Rhode Island	7.1%	New Hampshire	7.5%	39
40	Missouri	4.9%	Rhode Island	9.1%	Illinois	6.9%	Minnesota	7.4%	40
41	Tennessee	4.8%	Florida	9.1%	Tennessee	6.9%	Rhode Island	7.1%	41
42	Hawaii	4.4%	California	8.8%	Georgia	6.8%	Montana	6.8%	42
43	Florida	4.3%	Maine	8.7%	Maine	6.6%	Nevada	6.3%	43
	Maine	4.3%	Maryland	8.1%	Montana	6.5%	New Jersey	5.6%	44
45	Rhode Island	4.2%	Nevada	7.4%	Alaska	6.4%	Florida	5.3%	45
46	Connecticut	3.5%	New Jersey	6.4%	Nevada	6.2%	Connecticut	5.2%	46
47	Pennsylvania	3.3%	Connecticut	5.7%	New Jersey	5.3%	Alaska	4.9%	47
48	New Jersey	2.8%	New York	5.5%	New York	4.6%	Massachusetts	4.8%	48
	New York	2.8%	Massachusetts	5.5%	Pennsylvania	4.0%	Pennsylvania	4.8%	49
50	Massachusetts	2.0%	Pennsylvania	5.5%	Massachusetts	3.5%	New York	4.5%	50

Source: GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1960, 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 11

NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Total	2,008	U.S. Total	2,556	U.S. Total	3,231	U.S. Total	3,331	
1	New York	164	New York	219	New York	293	New York	300	1
2	California	152	California	199	California	268	California	289	2
3	Pennsylvania	124	Pennsylvania	140	Pennsylvania	200	Pennsylvania	204	3
4	Illinois	105	Illinois	132	Illinois	157	Illinois	163	4
5	Texas	99	Texas	123	Texas	153	Texas	157	5
6	Massachusetts	87	Massachusetts	118	Ohio	135	Ohio	141	6
7	Ohio	67	North Carolina	97	North Carolina	126	North Carolina	128	7
8	Wisconsin	62	Michigan	90	Massachusetts	116	Massachusetts	121	8
9	North Carolina	60	Ohio	90	Michigan	93	Missouri	93	9
10	Michigan	59	Missouri	69	Missouri	86	Michigan	92	10
	Missouri	59	Florida	63	Florida	79	Florida	88	11
12	Iowa	50	Wisconsin	63	Tennessee	77	Georgia	80	12
13	Georgia	49	Georgia	62	Georgia	76	Tennessee	80	
14	Tennessee	46	Virginia	61	Indiana	74	Alabama	77	14
15	Kansas	45	Minnesota	57	Minnesota	70	Indiana	74	15
16	Minnesota	43	New Jersey	56	Virginia	69	Virginia	71	16
	Mississippi	43	Tennessee	56	Wisconsin	65	Minnesota	69	17
18	Indiana	42	Kansas	53	New Jersey	62	South Carolina	63	18
19	Virginia	41	Iowa	51	Iowa	61	Wisconsin	62	19
20	Kentucky	39	Alabama	49	South Carolina	61	New Jersey	60	20
	Maryland	39	Maryland	47	Kentucky	57	Iowa	59	21
22	New Jersey	38	Connecticut	46	Maryland	57	Maryland	56	22
23	Florida	35	South Carolina	45	Alabama	55	Kansas	52	23
24	Oklahoma	34	Indiana	44	Kansas	52	Washington	52	
25	South Carolina	31	Mississippi	42	Washington	49	Connecticut	48	25
26	Connecticut	30	Oregon	39	Connecticut	47	Colorado	47	26
27	Alabama	28	Washington	39	Oklahoma	45	Oregon	47	
28	Oregon	27	Oklahoma	36	Oregon	45	Oklahoma	46	28
	Washington	27	Kentucky	35	Colorado	44	Kentucky	45	29
30	Nebraska	23	Colorado	28	Mississippi	42	Mississippi	42	30
31	Louisiana	22	Nebraska	27	Arkansas	35	Arkansas	36	
32	Colorado	21	Louisiana	23	Louisiana	32	Arizona	31	32
33	Maine	20	WEST VIRGINIA	22	Nebraska	30	Louisiana	31	
	WEST VIRGINIA	20	Arkansas	21	Arizona	28	Maine	30	34
35	Arkansas	19	New Hampshire	19	Maine	28	WEST VIRGINIA	29	35
36	South Dakota	16	Arizona	18	WEST VIRGINIA	28	Nebraska	28	36
37	Vermont	15	South Dakota	17	New Hampshire	27	New Hampshire	28	
38	North Dakota	12	Vermont	17	Vermont	21	Vermont	22	38
39	Montana	11	Maine	16	South Dakota	20	New Mexico	20	39
	New Hampshire	11	Rhode Island	13	New Mexico	19	North Dakota	19	40
41	Rhode Island	10	Utah	13	Montana	16	South Dakota	18	41
42	New Mexico	9	Montana	12	North Dakota	16	Montana	16	42
43	Idaho	8	North Dakota	12	Alaska	15	Alaska	15	43
	Utah	8	New Mexico	11	Utah	14	Utah	14	44
45	Arizona	7	Idaho	10	Rhode Island	13	Rhode Island	13	45
46	Wyoming	5	Wyoming	8	Hawaii	12	Hawaii	12	46
47	Delaware	4	Delaware	7	Delaware	10	Idaho	10	47
	Hawaii	4	Hawaii	7	Idaho	9	Delaware	8	48
49	Alaska	1	Nevada	4	Wyoming	9	Nevada	8	
	Nevada	1	Alaska	3	Nevada	7	Wyoming	8	

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, 1970, and 1981.
DIGEST OF EDUCATION STATISTICS, 1985-86, U.S. Department of Education.

TABLE 12

TOTAL ENROLLMENT IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION: BY STATE
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985
(000's)

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Total	3215.5	U.S. Total	8498.1	U.S. Total	12114.9	U.S. Total	12247.1	
1	California	397.7	California	1255.7	California	1808.6	California	1650.4	1
2	New York	330.9	New York	776.6	New York	991.8	New York	1000.1	2
3	Pennsylvania	176.6	Illinois	453.6	Texas	701.4	Texas	769.7	3
4	Texas	175.6	Texas	438.5	Illinois	644.2	Illinois	678.7	4
5	Illinois	175.2	Pennsylvania	410.5	Michigan	520.1	Pennsylvania	533.2	5
6	Ohio	158.4	Michigan	394.1	Pennsylvania	507.7	Ohio	514.7	6
7	Michigan	141.0	Ohio	371.4	Ohio	489.1	Michigan	507.3	7
8	Massachusetts	125.6	Massachusetts	303.0	Massachusetts	418.4	Florida	451.4	8
9	New Jersey	77.6	Florida	234.2	Florida	411.9	Massachusetts	421.2	9
10	Indiana	77.2	New Jersey	210.4	New Jersey	321.6	North Carolina	327.3	10
11	Missouri	77.0	Wisconsin	201.6	Washington	303.6	New Jersey	297.7	11
12	Wisconsin	66.8	Indiana	191.2	North Carolina	287.5	Virginia	292.4	12
13	Florida	63.6	Missouri	183.6	Virginia	280.5	Wisconsin	275.1	13
14	North Carolina	62.1	Washington	180.4	Wisconsin	269.1	Indiana	250.6	14
15	Minnesota	61.5	North Carolina	171.6	Indiana	247.3	Missouri	241.1	15
16	Washington	56.3	Minnesota	159.1	Missouri	234.4	Maryland	231.6	16
17	Louisiana	54.3	Virginia	149.2	Maryland	225.5	Washington	231.6	
	Oklahoma	54.3	Maryland	148.6	Minnesota	210.3	Minnesota	221.2	18
	Tennessee	53.5	Tennessee	135.5	Tennessee	204.6	Arizona	216.9	19
20	Maryland	51.1	Georgia	126.2	Arizona	202.7	Georgia	196.8	20
21	Iowa	49.7	Connecticut	124.9	Georgia	184.2	Tennessee	194.8	21
22	Kansas	48.3	Colorado	121.6	Alabama	164.3	Alabama	179.3	22
23	Virginia	46.8	Louisiana	120.7	Colorado	162.9	Louisiana	177.2	23
24	Connecticut	46.5	Oregon	114.3	Louisiana	160.1	Oklahoma	169.2	24
25	Georgia	45.6	Arizona	110.1	Connecticut	159.6	Colorado	161.3	25
26	Kentucky	43.3	Oklahoma	109.5	Oklahoma	157.6	Connecticut	159.3	26
27	Alabama	39.8	Iowa	108.3	Oregon	157.5	Iowa	152.9	27
28	Colorado	37.5	Alabama	102.7	Kentucky	143.1	Kentucky	141.7	28
29	Oregon	32.4	Kansas	101.3	Iowa	140.4	Kansas	141.4	29
30	Mississippi	32.0	Kentucky	98.9	Kansas	136.6	Oregon	138.0	30
31	Utah	31.1	Utah	79.1	South Carolina	132.5	South Carolina	131.9	31
32	Arizona	30.7	Mississippi	73.1	Mississippi	104.2	Utah	104.0	32
33	Nebraska	28.7	South Carolina	70.2	Utah	94.0	Mississippi	101.2	33
34	South Carolina	28.1	Nebraska	66.4	Nebraska	89.5	Nebraska	97.8	34
35	WEST VIRGINIA	26.7	WEST VIRGINIA	63.2	WEST VIRGINIA	82.0	Arkansas	78.0	35
36	Arkansas	23.4	Arkansas	51.6	Arkansas	77.6	WEST VIRGINIA	76.7	36
37	New Mexico	16.1	Rhode Island	45.1	Rhode Island	66.9	Rhode Island	69.9	37
38	Rhode Island	15.3	New Mexico	43.7	New Mexico	58.3	New Mexico	68.3	38
39	South Dakota	13.0	Hawaii	36.5	Hawaii	47.2	New Hampshire	52.3	39
40	North Dakota	12.4	Idaho	34.7	New Hampshire	46.8	Maine	52.2	40
41	Montana	11.7	Maine	32.2	Maine	43.3	Hawaii	49.9	41
42	Idaho	10.6	South Dakota	30.7	Idaho	43.0	Nevada	43.7	42
43	New Hampshire	10.4	North Dakota	30.5	Nevada	40.5	Idaho	42.7	43
44	Maine	10.3	Montana	29.7	Montana	35.2	North Dakota	37.9	44
45	Hawaii	9.6	New Hampshire	29.0	North Dakota	34.1	Montana	36.0	45
46	Vermont	8.9	Delaware	23.9	Delaware	32.9	South Dakota	32.8	46
47	Wyoming	5.7	Vermont	22.1	South Dakota	32.8	Delaware	31.9	47
48	Delaware	4.8	Wyoming	15.0	Vermont	30.6	Vermont	31.4	48
49	Nevada	4.0	Nevada	13.0	Alaska	21.3	Alaska	27.4	49
50	Alaska	1.6	Alaska	10.0	Wyoming	21.1	Wyoming	24.2	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, 1971, and 1981.
DIGEST OF EDUCATION STATISTICS, 1985-86, U.S. Department of Education.

TABLE 13

EARNED DEGREES CONFERRED BY INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION: BY STATE
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1984

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1984	Rank
	U.S. Total	476,704	U.S. Total	1,049,858	U.S. Total	1,330,244	U.S. Total	1,366,188	
1	New York	50,582	New York	101,101	New York	127,608	California	132,399	1
2	California	35,468	California	93,631	California	126,727	New York	129,086	2
3	Pennsylvania	29,239	Pennsylvania	62,077	Texas	75,874	Texas	78,478	3
4	Illinois	24,449	Illinois	55,299	Pennsylvania	73,453	Pennsylvania	75,137	4
5	Texas	24,305	Ohio	53,603	Illinois	66,889	Illinois	70,767	5
6	Massachusetts	23,265	Texas	51,981	Ohio	58,458	Ohio	60,265	6
7	Michigan	22,785	Michigan	50,323	Massachusetts	58,257	Massachusetts	59,000	7
8	Ohio	22,041	Massachusetts	43,787	Michigan	56,684	Michigan	55,856	8
9	Indiana	15,635	Indiana	32,512	Florida	38,727	Florida	40,492	9
10	Missouri	11,378	Wisconsin	26,731	Indiana	35,086	Indiana	35,599	10
11	Wisconsin	11,337	Missouri	25,676	New Jersey	34,538	New Jersey	33,281	11
12	North Carolina	11,202	Florida	25,400	Missouri	32,329	Missouri	33,230	12
13	Minnesota	10,820	New Jersey	24,292	North Carolina	31,166	North Carolina	32,980	13
14	New Jersey	10,332	North Carolina	23,102	Virginia	28,920	Virginia	31,323	14
15	Tennessee	9,333	Minnesota	21,953	Wisconsin	28,824	Wisconsin	30,789	15
16	Iowa	8,897	Tennessee	20,236	Georgia	25,551	Minnesota	26,733	16
17	Washington	8,232	Washington	18,390	Tennessee	24,608	Georgia	26,456	17
18	Oklahoma	8,143	Georgia	18,293	Minnesota	23,860	Washington	23,421	18
19	Kansas	7,946	Louisiana	17,835	Alabama	22,975	Tennessee	23,148	19
20	Florida	7,729	Iowa	17,702	Maryland	22,311	Maryland	22,456	20
21	Louisiana	7,713	Virginia	17,271	Washington	21,943	Louisiana	21,630	21
22	Colorado	7,349	Maryland	16,446	Louisiana	20,674	Alabama	21,198	22
23	Georgia	7,262	Colorado	16,316	Connecticut	20,095	Connecticut	20,535	23
24	Virginia	7,225	Alabama	15,846	Colorado	19,707	Colorado	20,464	24
25	Alabama	7,100	Connecticut	15,819	Iowa	18,302	Iowa	19,633	25
26	Connecticut	6,862	Kansas	15,812	Kentucky	18,302	Oklahoma	17,515	26
27	Kentucky	6,702	Oklahoma	15,792	Oklahoma	17,563	Kentucky	16,835	27
28	Maryland	6,427	Kentucky	15,482	Kansas	15,863	Arizona	16,464	28
29	Oregon	5,915	Oregon	13,693	South Carolina	15,788	Kansas	16,391	29
30	Mississippi	5,288	Nebraska	11,284	Oregon	15,030	South Carolina	16,237	30
31	Nebraska	4,854	Arizona	11,236	Arizona	14,842	Oregon	15,466	31
32	Utah	4,732	Utah	11,230	Utah	12,464	Utah	13,414	32
33	South Carolina	4,619	Mississippi	10,583	Mississippi	12,251	Mississippi	11,797	33
34	WEST VIRGINIA	4,296	WEST VIRGINIA	9,476	Nebraska	10,239	Nebraska	10,712	34
35	Arkansas	4,147	South Carolina	8,952	WEST VIRGINIA	10,086	WEST VIRGINIA	10,082	35
36	Arizona	3,593	Arkansas	8,761	Arkansas	9,228	Arkansas	9,655	36
37	South Dakota	2,562	Rhode Island	6,052	Rhode Island	8,794	Rhode Island	9,474	37
38	Rhode Island	2,434	South Dakota	5,646	New Hampshire	6,864	New Hampshire	7,787	38
39	Maine	2,129	New Mexico	5,575	New Mexico	6,761	New Mexico	6,517	39
40	New Hampshire	2,104	New Hampshire	4,795	Maine	5,578	Maine	5,574	40
41	North Dakota	2,048	Maine	4,782	Vermont	5,341	South Dakota	5,012	41
42	Montana	2,033	North Dakota	4,693	South Dakota	4,713	Vermont	4,991	42
43	New Mexico	1,918	Montana	4,429	Montana	4,648	Montana	4,954	43
44	Vermont	1,618	Hawaii	3,682	Hawaii	4,451	North Dakota	4,809	44
45	Idaho	1,425	Vermont	3,594	North Dakota	4,370	Hawaii	4,610	45
46	Hawaii	1,099	Idaho	3,199	Delaware	3,814	Delaware	3,897	46
47	Wyoming	903	Delaware	1,957	Idaho	3,702	Idaho	3,817	47
48	Delaware	618	Wyoming	1,796	Nevada	1,905	Nevada	2,470	48
49	Nevada	407	Nevada	1,239	Wyoming	1,763	Wyoming	1,940	49
50	Alaska	94	Alaska	496	Alaska	603	Alaska	943	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962.
THE BOOK OF THE STATES, 1972-73, Council of State Governments, Lexington, Kentucky.
DIGEST OF EDUCATION STATISTICS, 1983-84 and 1987, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education.

TABLE 14

FULL-TIME EQUIVALENT STATE AND LOCAL EMPLOYEES IN EDUCATION PER 10,000 INHABITANTS: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	140.8	U.S. Avg.	209.5	U.S. Avg.	235.8	U.S. Avg.	259.9	
1	Wyoming	211.8	Wyoming	302.0	Alaska	339.9	Wyoming	373.0	1
2	North Dakota	198.2	Utah	278.7	Wyoming	338.3	Alaska	335.7	2
3	Colorado	194.5	Colorado	274.9	New Mexico	307.4	Iowa	316.2	3
4	Utah	194.4	New Mexico	274.3	Nebraska	287.2	Kansas	309.6	4
5	South Dakota	185.9	South Dakota	274.2	Kansas	286.9	North Dakota	309.0	5
6	Kansas	185.3	North Dakota	264.8	Iowa	285.1	New Mexico	300.5	6
7	Arizona	178.2	Delaware	264.5	Montana	284.7	Nebraska	294.6	7
8	New Mexico	177.6	Oregon	256.2	Vermont	277.9	Utah	286.4	8
9	Oregon	176.2	Nebraska	255.3	North Dakota	276.6	WEST VIRGINIA	285.9	9
10	Montana	175.1	Kansas	253.9	South Carolina	273.3	Idaho	285.4	10
11	Washington	166.8	Hawaii	250.4	Arizona	271.9	Montana	281.1	11
12	California	165.6	Montana	247.2	North Carolina	270.1	Colorado	280.6	12
13	Nebraska	164.8	Iowa	246.5	Oklahoma	270.1	Texas	278.1	13
14	Nevada	163.8	Washington	244.9	WEST VIRGINIA	269.8	South Carolina	277.8	14
15	Iowa	163.7	Minnesota	240.9	Virginia	268.4	Wisconsin	275.8	15
16	Louisiana	162.5	Arizona	236.7	South Dakota	267.4	Oklahoma	275.3	16
17	Oklahoma	158.7	Idaho	233.7	Colorado	267.1	Virginia	273.9	17
18	Texas	156.3	Alaska	230.1	Utah	266.9	South Dakota	273.7	18
19	Minnesota	155.9	Michigan	226.5	Texas	266.7	Vermont	273.3	19
20	Idaho	152.2	Vermont	224.2	Maryland	264.3	Michigan	270.4	20
21	Delaware	151.0	Nevada	222.9	Oregon	260.8	Mississippi	270.0	21
22	WEST VIRGINIA	149.3	Texas	222.8	Mississippi	257.7	Oregon	262.8	22
23	Michigan	149.2	Louisiana	222.3	Maine	256.9	Delaware	261.6	23
24	Florida	145.8	WEST VIRGINIA	220.6	Georgia	255.9	North Carolina	261.5	24
25	South Carolina	143.4	South Carolina	220.5	Minnesota	255.8	Arizona	259.2	25
26	Georgia	143.1	Oklahoma	220.1	Delaware	254.2	Maine	259.0	26
27	Vermont	142.2	Maine	219.8	Louisiana	254.0	Indiana	258.6	27
28	Indiana	142.0	Mississippi	217.2	Michigan	250.5	Louisiana	253.7	28
	North Carolina	142.0	Virginia	215.9	Wisconsin	249.9	Alabama	248.5	29
30	Mississippi	141.3	Indiana	215.7	Idaho	244.3	New Hampshire	248.1	30
31	Arkansas	140.6	Wisconsin	213.9	Arkansas	244.1	Arkansas	247.0	31
32	Alabama	137.7	Maryland	210.7	Indiana	239.5	Georgia	246.5	32
33	Virginia	137.4	California	209.3	New Jersey	238.5	Maryland	243.3	33
34	Maine	134.9	Georgia	209.3	Washington	235.7	New Jersey	242.0	34
35	Ohio	134.7	Florida	207.7	Alabama	233.1	Connecticut	239.9	35
36	Tennessee	133.8	North Carolina	206.1	Kentucky	228.5	Kentucky	239.5	36
37	Maryland	133.7	Illinois	203.4	Missouri	227.7	Washington	234.2	37
38	Alaska	132.8	Missouri	202.7	New Hampshire	226.8	Minnesota	232.7	38
39	Kentucky	129.4	New York	201.9	Connecticut	226.7	Ohio	229.7	39
40	Connecticut	127.1	Arkansas	201.3	Massachusetts	225.3	Tennessee	226.7	40
41	Hawaii	126.4	Alabama	196.4	Tennessee	225.2	New York	226.1	41
42	Wisconsin	125.9	Kentucky	196.3	Hawaii	222.8	Hawaii	226.0	42
43	Illinois	125.7	Ohio	193.0	Illinois	220.0	Nevada	224.6	43
44	New York	123.7	Tennessee	190.6	Ohio	218.2	Illinois	218.9	44
45	New Jersey	120.2	Connecticut	186.8	Rhode Island	214.9	Massachusetts	218.7	45
46	Missouri	119.3	Rhode Island	184.1	California	210.3	Missouri	215.5	46
47	New Hampshire	117.4	New Hampshire	181.9	Florida	207.3	California	214.9	47
48	Pennsylvania	113.5	New Jersey	181.0	Nevada	201.6	Rhode Island	214.2	48
49	Rhode Island	111.5	Pennsylvania	170.0	New York	196.9	Florida	206.3	49
50	Massachusetts	102.4	Massachusetts	162.2	Pennsylvania	189.5	Pennsylvania	193.0	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961.
PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT in 1970, 1980 and 1986, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

PUBLIC WELFARE

Table 1 presents per capita spending for public welfare. Expenditures for welfare increased by 58 percent between 1980 and 1986.

Welfare spending varies among the states, with New York spending $637.90 in 1986, and ranked number one. Texas spent $140.55 per capita, and ranked fifieth. The national average spent per capita on welfare in 1986 was $318.28. West Virginia spent $233.46 per capita in 1986 and ranked twenty-seventh, some thirty-six percent below the national average.

State and local public welfare expenditures per $1,000 personal income is reported in Table 2. The national average dropped from $23.59 in 1980 to $22.55 per $1,000 of personal income in 1986. West Virginia dropped in ranking from a high of eleventh in 1960, and eighteenth in 1970, to thirty-second in 1980. The state rose in rank in 1986 to sixteenth. The State's spending per $1,000 personal income in 1986 was $22.70, above the national average.

Table 3 tabulates public welfare expenditures as a percent of the amount state and local governments spend. This table will give an indication of the monies state and local governments commit to public welfare. The U.S. average remained unchanged from 1980 (10.5 percent) to 1986 (10.5 percent). In 1960, West Virginia ranked thirteenth and committed 10.3 percent of its funds to welfare programs. Since that time, the State's rank and percentage figure dropped to twenty-fifth in 1970 and thirty-seventh (7.3 percent) in 1980. However, in 1986, the State's spending rose, and ranked West Virginia twenty-first, with 9.3 percent of its funds committed to welfare categories.

The percent of persons receiving public assistance compared with total population is listed in Table 4. The number of such persons has dropped slowly over the last fifteen years from 6.6 percent in 1970 to 6.2 percent in 1986. West Virginia ranked fifth in 1960 (5.8 percent) but dropped to twenty-fifth (6.0 percent) in 1980. The number of persons receiving public assistance increased 1.5 percent from 1980 to 1986 (8.2 percent), higher than the national average, giving the State a ranking of sixth. Mississippi has the largest percentage of persons on public assistance rolls (10.4 percent), while New Hampshire has the lowest (1.9 percent). The southern states and the more densely populated states have a higher percentage of their population receiving public assistance than do the New England and western states, which are generally more sparsely populated.

The following four tables report payments that are made to welfare recipients.

Table 5 lists the average monthly payment for aid to families with dependent children (AFDC) per recipient. AFDC provides financial assistance to dependent children of indigent families in which one parent is incapacitated, constantly absent from the home, or has died. Eligibility criteria and benefit levels for AFDC are determined by each state.

The national average payment per recipient increased by 288 percent between 1960 and 1985. In 1985, West Virginia ranked forty-first with an average monthly payment of $72.75, below the national average of $116.65 per recipient. Alaska had the highest payment ($219.94) and Mississippi had the lowest payment ($34.51).

In 1974, the SSI (Supplemental Security Income) program, established by Title XVI of the Social Security Act, provided for cash assistance to be made to needy persons aged sixty-five or older, the disabled, or the blind, in minimum monthly payments. There is a uniform minimum benefit and eligibility requirement for all recipients. States have the option to supplement the minimum federal payment for all or selected categories of persons. Prior to 1974, public assistance for these individuals was administered by each state and assisted by federal funds in the form of grants.

Average monthly payments for aid to the aged is found in Table 6. This excludes persons whose eligibility is based on disability or blindness even if they are aged sixty-five or older. In 1986, West Virginia ranked twenty-fourth with an average monthly payment of $137, below the national average of $174.

Table 7 tabulates average monthly payments for aid to the disabled. A disabled person is an individual who is unable to engage in any substantial activity due to a medically determined physical or mental impairment that lasts, or can be expected to last, for a period of at least 12 months. In 1986, West Virginia ranked sixteenth, tied with Connecticut, with an average monthly payment of $262. The national average was $282, with California being the highest ranked state, and North Dakota the lowest ranked state.

Table 8 lists the average monthly payment for aid to the blind. A blind person is an individual having 20/200 or less vision in the better eye with the use of correcting lenses. West Virginia ranked nineteenth in 1986, with an average monthly payment of $253.

Table 9 shows the average monthly benefit per recipient receiving Food Stamps. The Food Stamp Program authorizes the indigent to buy food stamps worth more than the actual purchase price of groceries. The program is funded by the federal government and administered by the Food and Nutrition Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture. Administrative expenses are split between the federal government and each state.

For the three time periods listed, the national average monthly benefit per recipient ranged from $7.09 in 1970 to $44.51 in 1985. West Virginia ranked fifth in 1970 with a benefit of $9.39 per recipient, and dropped to thirty-first in 1979 with a benefit of $30.26. In 1985, West Virginia rose in rank to fifteenth and an average monthly benefit of $46.59. Hawaii ranked number one, spent $78.48 per recipient; while California, ranked fiftieth, spent $31.10 per recipient.

Table 10 reports the average weekly unemployment benefits paid by each state. The program is administered by the federal government and each State's unemployment security agency. State unemployment insurance laws specify their own eligibility tests; the benefit levels, related to the individual's past earnings; and the tax rates. In most states, benefits are payable for twenty-six weeks. Benefits may be extended during periods of high unemployment by 50 percent for up to 13 weeks under Federal-State extended unemployment compensation program.

The national average weekly unemployment benefit in 1960 was $32.87; while in 1986 the weekly benefit was $134.00, an increase of 308 percent since 1960. West Virginia's benefits increased considerably between 1970 and 1980, causing a jump in rank from fiftieth to sixteenth. In 1986, the state dropped in rank to ninteenth, with an average weekly benefit of $142.00, which is above the national average. Minnesota ranked first, with a weekly benefit of $166.00; Tennessee ranked fiftieth, with a weekly benefit of $92.00.

Table 11 reports worker's compensation maximum benefits per week for temporary/total disability. The benefits are based on computation formulas tied to percentages of the states' average weekly wage. The percentages range from 66 2/3 to 200 percent. The national average in 1960 was $46.84, in 1969: $65.59; in 1979: $202.00; and in 1986 it was $348.34. West Virginia's ranking in this table has ranged from thirty-seventh in 1960, tied with nine other states, with a maximum benefit of $35.00; to forty-ninth in 1969, with a benefit of $27.90. The State rose considerably in rank between 1969 and 1979 to eighth, with a maximum benefit of $237.00. In 1986, West Virginia dropped to a ranking of twentieth, with a maximum benefit of $350.83. Alaska ranked highest in this measure with a maximum benefit of $1,094.00. Mississippi was fiftieth in the U.S., with a maximum benefit of $140.00 per week.

TABLE 1

PER CAPITA STATE AND LOCAL PUBLIC WELFARE EXPENDITURES
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$24.47	U.S. Avg.	$72.24	U.S. Avg.	$201.11	U.S. Avg.	$318.28	
1	Oklahoma	$55.17	California	$148.41	New York	$358.07	New York	$637.90	1
2	Louisiana	$49.94	Massachusetts	$132.86	Rhode Island	$315.39	Alaska	$514.79	2
3	Colorado	$48.52	New York	$134.80	Massachusetts	$313.85	Massachusetts	$497.39	3
4	Washington	$36.71	Oklahoma	$94.60	Michigan	$292.24	Rhode Island	$479.45	4
5	California	$35.05	Rhode Island	$92.92	Alaska	$288.06	Minnesota	$459.19	5
6	Massachusetts	$34.33	Vermont	$83.49	California	$285.67	Wisconsin	$454.69	6
7	Missouri	$33.13	Pennsylvania	$69.36	Wisconsin	$260.90	Michigan	$454.63	7
8	Rhode Island	$28.59	Louisiana	$68.68	Minnesota	$254.00	California	$439.96	8
9	Minnesota	$28.05	Wisconsin	$68.46	Hawaii	$240.29	Maine	$410.13	9
10	New Mexico	$27.14	Washington	$68.14	Pennsylvania	$236.24	Ohio	$367.83	10
11	New York	$26.71	Connecticut	$68.10	Maine	$234.99	Pennsylvania	$348.34	11
12	Maine	$25.26	Michigan	$66.89	Illinois	$222.72	Connecticut	$345.35	12
13	Vermont	$25.06	Colorado	$66.21	Connecticut	$211.99	Vermont	$339.66	13
14	Alabama	$25.05	Maine	$65.51	New Jersey	$208.06	Illinois	$329.83	14
15	Oregon	$24.59	Minnesota	$65.44	Washington	$190.79	New Jersey	$327.41	15
16	Illinois	$24.39	Hawaii	$63.51	Iowa	$188.91	Iowa	$299.01	16
17	Mississippi	$24.36	Alabama	$61.03	Vermont	$182.31	Maryland	$291.27	17
18	Iowa	$24.09	New Mexico	$60.88	New Hampshire	$182.31	Washington	$282.88	18
19	Kansas	$23.97	Illinois	$57.50	Oklahoma	$181.22	Hawaii	$269.68	19
20	Georgia	$23.85	Kentucky	$55.96	Oregon	$180.90	North Dakota	$266.55	20
21	North Dakota	$23.19	Missouri	$55.57	Maryland	$179.32	Montana	$255.05	21
22	Connecticut	$22.61	Oregon	$55.46	Kentucky	$177.09	Kentucky	$253.39	22
23	Ohio	$22.57	Georgia	$54.82	Ohio	$169.28	Colorado	$249.71	23
24	WEST VIRGINIA	$22.35	Delaware	$54.43	Delaware	$165.16	Oklahoma	$237.89	24
	Michigan	$22.35	Maryland	$54.33	Kansas	$158.10	Nebraska	$235.63	25
26	Montana	$22.12	New Jersey	$52.95	Mississippi	$155.91	Indiana	$234.05	26
27	Wisconsin	$21.75	Arkansas	$51.27	Louisiana	$153.57	WEST VIRGINIA	$233.46	27
28	South Dakota	$21.70	Alaska	$50.91	South Dakota	$151.74	New Hampshire	$232.78	28
29	Utah	$20.98	Nevada	$49.92	Virginia	$143.69	Tennessee	$218.62	29
30	Pennsylvania	$20.83	Montana	$49.20	Alabama	$141.33	Louisiana	$218.53	30
31	Kentucky	$20.58	Mississippi	$49.18	Arkansas	$141.06	Arkansas	$213.88	31
32	New Hampshire	$20.03	Iowa	$49.11	North Dakota	$140.33	Oregon	$213.86	32
33	Arkansas	$19.42	WEST VIRGINIA	$48.83	Colorado	$139.18	Utah	$213.73	33
34	Arizona	$19.40	Utah	$48.38	Montana	$136.94	South Dakota	$209.71	34
35	Idaho	$19.37	Texas	$47.56	Missouri	$134.09	Wyoming	$203.94	35
36	Alaska	$19.30	North Dakota	$46.36	North Carolina	$130.97	Kansas	$201.25	36
37	Texas	$19.25	Kansas	$45.07	WEST VIRGINIA	$130.11	Missouri	$200.03	37
38	Nevada	$18.06	Ohio	$43.37	Tennessee	$129.82	Mississippi	$197.80	38
39	Florida	$17.94	South Dakota	$43.22	Georgia	$129.41	New Mexico	$197.19	39
40	Nebraska	$17.89	Idaho	$41.20	Utah	$128.66	Delaware	$194.12	40
41	Delaware	$17.59	Tennessee	$40.44	New Mexico	$128.03	Georgia	$191.30	41
42	Tennessee	$17.52	New Hampshire	$39.91	Idaho	$123.29	Alabama	$184.87	42
43	Wyoming	$16.27	Nebraska	$37.61	Nebraska	$121.67	Arizona	$182.76	43
44	North Carolina	$15.76	North Carolina	$35.79	Indiana	$120.70	North Carolina	$180.14	44
45	Hawaii	$15.58	Wyoming	$35.55	South Carolina	$116.42	South Carolina	$179.17	45
46	New Jersey	$13.95	Florida	$31.74	Texas	$105.49	Virginia	$174.45	46
47	South Carolina	$13.28	Virginia	$30.24	Nevada	$96.31	Florida	$156.78	47
	Indiana	$13.28	Arizona	$29.51	Wyoming	$90.85	Idaho	$155.24	48
49	Maryland	$11.01	South Carolina	$28.27	Florida	$78.11	Nevada	$154.70	49
50	Virginia	$8.57	Indiana	$27.44	Arizona	$68.16	Texas	$140.55	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 2

STATE AND LOCAL PUBLIC WELFARE SPENDING PER $1,000 PERSONAL INCOME: 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$11.32	U.S. Avg.	$19.71	U.S. Avg.	$23.59	U.S. Avg.	$22.55	
1	Louisiana	$30.19	California	$35.50	New York	$39.13	New York	$38.92	1
2	Oklahoma	$29.64	Massachusetts	$33.26	Rhode Island	$37.78	Maine	$34.26	2
3	Colorado	$21.32	Oklahoma	$30.93	Massachusetts	$35.10	Rhode Island	$34.04	3
4	Mississippi	$20.23	New York	$30.21	Maine	$34.24	Wisconsin	$33.39	4
5	Arkansas	$19.11	Vermont	$26.03	Michigan	$31.25	Michigan	$33.09	5
6	Alabama	$16.83	Rhode Island	$25.10	Wisconsin	$30.66	Minnesota	$32.76	6
7	Missouri	$15.67	Louisiana	$24.02	California	$29.65	Massachusetts	$29.20	7
8	Washington	$15.03	Alabama	$23.06	Minnesota	$28.77	Alaska	$29.01	8
9	Georgia	$14.55	Maine	$21.79	Pennsylvania	$27.92	Ohio	$27.83	9
10	New Mexico	$14.37	New Mexico	$21.48	Hawaii	$27.75	Vermont	$27.09	10
11	WEST VIRGINIA	$14.02	Mississippi	$20.83	Vermont	$26.45	Pennsylvania	$25.58	11
12	Massachusetts	$13.94	Arkansas	$19.86	Mississippi	$26.19	California -	$24.68	12
13	Maine	$13.69	Wisconsin	$19.67	Alaska	$25.30	Kentucky	$23.42	13
14	Vermont	$13.60	Kentucky	$19.58	Kentucky	$24.87	Iowa	$23.07	14
15	North Dakota	$13.52	Colorado	$19.30	Illinois	$23.11	Montana	$22.95	15
16	Minnesota	$13.26	Pennsylvania	$18.94	New Hampshire	$22.67	WEST VIRGINIA	$22.70	16
17	Kentucky	$13.06	Minnesota	$18.51	Oklahoma	$22.28	Illinois	$22.42	17
18	California	$12.93	WEST VIRGINIA	$17.98	Iowa	$21.62	North Dakota	$21.92	18
19	Rhode Island	$12.88	Washington	$17.74	New Jersey	$21.44	Mississippi	$21.63	19
20	South Dakota	$12.17	Georgia	$17.65	Arkansas	$21.28	Utah	$20.62	20
21	Iowa	$12.12	Michigan	$16.95	Louisiana	$21.19	Arkansas	$20.53	21
22	Tennessee	$11.35	Utah	$16.36	Oregon	$21.09	Washington	$20.31	22
23	Kansas	$11.08	Missouri	$16.16	Washington	$20.98	Tennessee	$19.61	23
24	Oregon	$11.00	Hawaii	$15.98	Alabama	$20.95	Louisiana	$19.47	24
25	Montana	$10.85	Oregon	$15.97	Connecticut	$20.89	Oklahoma	$19.47	
26	Utah	$10.66	Montana	$15.73	South Dakota	$20.38	Hawaii	$19.42	26
27	Idaho	$10.47	North Dakota	$15.46	Ohio	$19.54	Connecticut	$19.18	27
28	North Carolina	$10.10	Connecticut	$14.98	Maryland	$19.53	New Jersey	$18.95	28
29	Texas	$10.00	Texas	$14.60	Utah	$19.11	South Dakota	$18.78	29
30	Wisconsin	$9.99	South Dakota	$14.43	North Carolina	$18.58	Maryland	$18.65	30
31	New York	$9.71	Tennessee	$14.18	Tennessee	$18.53	Indiana	$18.64	31
32	Ohio	$9.67	Iowa	$14.05	WEST VIRGINIA	$18.33	New Mexico	$18.43	32
33	South Carolina	$9.65	Maryland	$13.89	Georgia	$18.11	Nebraska	$17.60	33
34	Michigan	$9.61	Idaho	$13.85	Delaware	$18.10	Alabama	$17.46	34
35	Arizona	$9.55	Illinois	$13.50	Montana	$17.84	South Carolina	$17.08	35
36	New Hampshire	$9.34	Delaware	$13.45	New Mexico	$17.74	Colorado	$17.05	36
37	Pennsylvania	$9.29	Kansas	$12.52	South Carolina	$17.55	Oregon	$17.01	37
38	Florida	$9.20	New Jersey	$12.52	Virginia	$17.21	New Hampshire	$16.01	38
	Illinois	$9.20	Alaska	$12.22	Kansas	$17.08	North Carolina	$15.69	39
40	Nebraska	$8.47	North Carolina	$12.10	Idaho	$16.99	Georgia	$15.58	40
41	Connecticut	$8.03	Nevada	$11.97	North Dakota	$16.94	Wyoming	$15.33	41
42	Wyoming	$7.19	New Hampshire	$11.82	Missouri	$16.42	Missouri	$15.21	42
43	Alaska	$6.80	Ohio	$11.50	Colorado	$15.90	Arizona	$14.83	43
44	Hawaii	$6.54	Wyoming	$11.01	Indiana	$14.32	Kansas	$14.67	44
45	Delaware	$6.37	Nebraska	$10.66	Nebraska	$13.98	Idaho	$13.94	45
46	Nevada	$6.32	South Carolina	$10.43	Texas	$12.76	Delaware	$13.77	46
47	Indiana	$6.06	Florida	$9.62	Nevada	$10.42	Virginia	$12.17	47
48	New Jersey	$5.15	Arizona	$9.16	Florida	$1[illegible].05	Florida	$11.72	48
49	Maryland	$4.69	Virginia	$9.10	Wyoming	$9.58	Nevada	$10.80	49
50	Virginia	$4.65	Indiana	$7.55	Arizona	$8.98	Texas	$10.62	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 3

PUBLIC WELFARE EXPENDITURES AS PERCENT OF TOTAL STATE AND LOCAL SPENDING 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	8.5%	U.S. Avg.	11.2%	U.S. Avg.	10.5%	U.S. Avg.	10.5%	
1	Oklahoma	19.6%	Massachusetts	19.3%	Rhode Island	15.9%	Maine	15.8%	1
2	Louisiana	15.5%	California	17.6%	Maine	14.5%	Rhode Island	15.8%	
3	Missouri	14.3%	Oklahoma	16.4%	Massachusetts	14.4%	Wisconsin	14.6%	3
4	Colorado	14.1%	Rhode Island	15.0%	New York	13.7%	Massachusetts	14.5%	4
5	Arkansas	13.3%	New York	14.7%	Michigan	13.6%	New York	14.5%	
6	Alabama	11.5%	Louisiana	12.2%	Pennsylvania	13.3%	Michigan	14.2%	6
	Massachusetts	11.5%	Alabama	12.1%	Wisconsin	13.1%	Ohio	13.4%	7
8	Rhode Island	11.2%	Maine	11.9%	California	12.7%	Minnesota	13.1%	8
9	Washington	11.0%	Pennsylvania	11.6%	Connecticut	12.1%	Pennsylvania	13.1%	
10	Georgia	10.7%	Vermont	11.5%	Illinois	12.1%	Illinois	12.2%	10
11	Mississippi	10.5%	Arkansas	10.8%	Minnesota	11.9%	Connecticut	11.9%	11
12	Kentucky	10.4%	Kentucky	10.5%	New Hampshire	11.9%	Kentucky	11.6%	12
13	WEST VIRGINIA	10.3%	Connecticut	10.4%	Oklahoma	11.2%	California	11.3%	13
14	Maine	9.9%	Colorado	10.3%	Hawaii	11.0%	Vermont	11.3%	
15	California	9.2%	Missouri	10.1%	New Jersey	11.0%	Iowa	10.7%	15
16	New Mexico	8.8%	Georgia	10.0%	Kentucky	10.6%	Indiana	10.4%	16
17	Illinois	8.5%	Michigan	9.9%	Arkansas	10.5%	New Hampshire	10.4%	
	Minnesota	8.5%	Wisconsin	9.9%	Mississippi	10.3%	Arkansas	10.3%	18
19	Ohio	8.3%	Illinois	9.5%	Vermont	10.3%	New Jersey	10.2%	19
20	Iowa	8.2%	Texas	9.5%	Iowa	9.9%	Maryland	10.0%	20
	Kansas	8.2%	Mississippi	9.4%	Ohio	9.7%	WEST VIRGINIA	9.3%	21
22	North Carolina	8.1%	New Mexico	9.1%	Missouri	9.1%	Missouri	9.2%	22
	Pennsylvania	8.1%	Minnesota	9.0%	Alabama	8.9%	Oklahoma	9.1%	23
	Tennessee	8.1%	Washington	9.0%	Virginia	8.9%	North Dakota	9.0%	24
25	Texas	7.8%	New Jersey	8.8%	Louisiana	8.8%	Mississippi	8.9%	25
26	Vermont	7.7%	WEST VIRGINIA	8.8%	Kansas	8.7%	Hawaii	8.7%	26
27	Wisconsin	7.5%	Maryland	8.1%	Maryland	8.7%	South Dakota	8.6%	27
28	Michigan	7.4%	Ohio	8.1%	North Carolina	8.7%	Tennessee	8.3%	28
29	Connecticut	7.3%	Tennessee	8.1%	Indiana	8.6%	Colorado	8.2%	29
	New Hampshire	7.3%	Oregon	8.0%	South Dakota	8.4%	Montana	8.1%	30
	South Carolina	7.3%	North Carolina	7.7%	Delaware	8.2%	Washington	7.9%	31
32	Oregon	7.2%	Iowa	7.6%	Oregon	8.2%	Louisiana	7.8%	32
	South Dakota	7.2%	Utah	7.6%	Georgia	8.0%	Kansas	7.5%	33
34	New York	7.1%	Kansas	7.4%	Idaho	8.0%	Alabama	7.4%	34
35	Idaho	6.8%	New Hampshire	7.4%	South Carolina	7.7%	North Carolina	7.4%	
	Utah	6.8%	Montana	7.3%	Washington	7.5%	Georgia	7.2%	36
37	Nebraska	6.7%	North Dakota	7.1%	Colorado	7.3%	Virginia	7.1%	37
38	Montana	6.6%	Idaho	7.0%	Tennessee	7.3%	South Carolina	7.0%	38
39	Arizona	6.3%	Delaware	6.9%	WEST VIRGINIA	7.3%	Idaho	6.9%	39
	Florida	6.3%	South Dakota	6.8%	North Dakota	7.1%	Nebraska	6.9%	
	North Dakota	6.3%	Nebraska	6.5%	Utah	7.1%	Oregon	6.8%	41
42	Alaska	5.6%	South Carolina	6.2%	New Mexico	7.0%	New Mexico	6.7%	42
43	New Jersey	5.4%	Hawaii	6.1%	Montana	6.9%	Utah	6.5%	43
	Delaware	5.2%	Florida	6.0%	Texas	6.6%	Delaware	6.2%	44
45	Indiana	5.2%	Nevada	5.9%	Florida	5.2%	Florida	6.2%	
46	Nevada	4.3%	Virginia	5.8%	Nebraska	5.1%	Arizona	5.9%	46
47	Hawaii	4.2%	Indiana	5.3%	Alaska	4.2%	Texas	5.4%	47
48	Maryland	4.1%	Arizona	4.7%	Nevada	4.2%	Alaska	4.9%	48
49	Virginia	4.0%	Wyoming	4.1%	Arizona	3.5%	Nevada	4.8%	49
50	Wyoming	3.6%	Alaska	3.8%	Wyoming	3.5%	Wyoming	4.1%	50

Source: GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1960, 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 4

PERCENT PUBLIC ASSISTANCE RECIPIENTS OF TOTAL POPULATION
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	3.5%	U.S. Avg.	6.6%	U.S. Avg.	6.5%	U.S. Avg.	6.2%	
1	Mississippi	8.2%	Louisiana	11.1%	Mississippi	11.4%	Mississippi	10.4%	1
2	Oklahoma	7.5%	Mississippi	11.1%	Michigan	8.9%	Michigan	8.7%	2
3	Louisiana	7.3%	California	10.7%	California	8.8%	California	8.7%	
4	Alabama	6.0%	Alabama	8.7%	New York	8.4%	Louisiana	8.2%	4
5	WEST VIRGINIA	5.8%	Georgia	8.6%	Louisiana	8.3%	New York	8.2%	
6	Missouri	5.6%	New York	8.4%	Massachusetts	8.3%	WEST VIRGINIA	8.2%	
7	Arkansas	5.2%	Oklahoma	8.0%	Alabama	8.1%	Wisconsin	7.8%	7
8	Colorado	5.1%	New Mexico	7.5%	South Carolina	7.6%	Illinois	7.6%	8
9	Georgia	4.7%	WEST VIRGINIA	7.2%	Maine	7.4%	Ohio	7.5%	9
	Kentucky	4.7%	Maine	7.1%	New Jersey	7.4%	Kentucky	7.0%	10
	New Mexico	4.7%	Kentucky	6.9%	Hawaii	7.3%	Maine	6.9%	11
12	Tennessee	4.2%	Arkansas	6.9%	Arkansas	7.2%	Alabama	6.8%	12
13	North Carolina	4.0%	Missouri	6.5%	Kentucky	7.2%	South Carolina	6.5%	13
14	Arizona	3.9%	New Jersey	6.5%	Rhode Island	7.2%	Georgia	6.4%	14
	Maine	3.9%	Colorado	6.4%	Illinois	7.0%	Pennsylvania	6.3%	15
	Washington	3.9%	Tennessee	6.4%	Georgia	6.9%	Rhode Island	6.2%	16
17	California	3.8%	Massachusetts	6.3%	Pennsylvania	6.7%	Tennessee	6.1%	17
18	Florida	3.6%	Michigan	6.3%	Delaware	6.6%	Arkansas	5.9%	18
19	Rhode Island	3.5%	Rhode Island	6.3%	Tennessee	6.4%	Massachusetts	5.9%	
20	Texas	3.4%	Pennsylvania	6.2%	Vermont	6.4%	New Jersey	5.8%	20
21	South Carolina	3.3%	Delaware	6.2%	Maryland	6.2%	Vermont	5.6%	21
22	Vermont	3.1%	Oregon	5.9%	New Mexico	6.1%	Washington	5.6%	
	South Dakota	3.1%	Washington	5.8%	WEST VIRGINIA	6.1%	Missouri	5.5%	23
24	Pennsylvania	3.0%	Illinois	5.5%	Wisconsin	6.1%	Maryland	5.5%	
25	Illinois	2.9%	Texas	5.4%	Ohio	6.0%	Hawaii	5.4%	25
	Utah	2.9%	Hawaii	5.2%	Missouri	5.9%	Iowa	5.4%	
27	Minnesota	2.8%	Florida	5.2%	North Carolina	5.8%	New Mexico	5.3%	27
	Oregon	2.8%	Maryland	5.0%	Connecticut	5.2%	North Carolina	5.0%	28
29	Kansas	2.8%	Arizona	4.9%	Oklahoma	5.2%	Minnesota	4.6%	29
30	Iowa	2.7%	Vermont	4.7%	Oregon	4.9%	Delaware	4.6%	
	Ohio	2.7%	Utah	4.5%	Washington	4.9%	Connecticut	4.5%	31
32	Alaska	2.6%	Ohio	4.4%	Alaska	4.6%	Oklahoma	4.5%	
	Idaho	2.6%	Alaska	4.3%	Virginia	4.6%	Oregon	4.2%	33
	Massachusetts	2.6%	North Carolina	4.3%	Iowa	4.5%	Montana	4.2%	
	Nevada	2.6%	Kansas	4.2%	Florida	4.4%	Virginia	4.1%	35
	New York	2.6%	Connecticut	4.0%	South Dakota	4.2%	Texas	4.1%	
37	Montana	2.5%	South Carolina	4.0%	Minnesota	4.1%	Alaska	4.0%	37
	North Dakota	2.5%	Nevada	3.9%	Colorado	3.8%	Florida	3.9%	38
39	Michigan	2.5%	South Dakota	3.9%	Kansas	3.8%	Nebraska	3.9%	
40	Delaware	2.3%	Iowa	3.7%	Texas	3.8%	Indiana	3.8%	40
41	Wyoming	2.2%	Minnesota	3.7%	Indiana	3.6%	South Dakota	3.7%	41
	Nebraska	2.2%	Montana	3.6%	Montana	3.4%	Kansas	3.7%	
43	Wisconsin	2.1%	Idaho	3.5%	Nebraska	3.1%	Colorado	3.5%	43
	Hawaii	2.1%	Nebraska	3.4%	Idaho	3.1%	Arizona	3.3%	44
45	Indiana	2.0%	Virginia	3.1%	Utah	3.1%	North Carolina	3.0%	45
46	Connecticut	1.9%	North Dakota	3.0%	Arizona	3.0%	Utah	3.0%	46
47	Maryland	1.8%	Wisconsin	3.0%	New Hampshire	3.0%	Wyoming	2.7%	47
48	New Hampshire	1.7%	New Hampshire	2.8%	North Dakota	3.0%	Idaho	2.6%	48
49	New Jersey	1.6%	Wyoming	2.8%	Nevada	2.4%	Nevada	2.5%	49
50	Virginia	1.6%	Indiana	2.6%	Wyoming	1.9%	New Hampshire	1.9%	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961, 1971 and 1988, U.S. Bureau of the Census.
SOCIAL SECURITY BULLETIN, December, 1980.

Note: Data compiled by the U.S. Bureau of the Census. Total recipients as of June of AFDC and of Federal SSI as percent of resident population.

TABLE 5

AVERAGE MONTHLY PAYMENT FOR AID TO FAMILIES WITH DEPENDENT CHILDREN (PER RECIPIENT) 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985

Rank	State	1960	State	1971	State	1980	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$30.06	U.S. Avg.	$49.30	U.S. Avg.	$93.11	U.S. Avg.	$116.65	
1	Connecticut	$49.72	Minnesota	$72.15	Alaska	$131.55	Alaska	$219.94	1
2	Massachusetts	$48.53	Hawaii	$71.60	Wisconsin	$129.79	California	$175.61	2
3	Washington	$47.26	Alaska	$69.65	California	$125.36	Minnesota	$166.84	3
4	New Jersey	$47.10	Connecticut	$69.05	Oregon	$124.99	Wisconsin	$161.77	4
5	California	$47.01	Massachusetts(1)	$67.25	Hawaii	$124.22	Washington	$155.59	5
6	Wisconsin	$46.71	New York	$66.95	Washington	$123.65	Connecticut	$153.91	6
7	Minnesota	$46.49	New Hampshire	$64.55	Michigan	$123.35	New York	$152.38	7
8	New York	$44.61	Wisconsin	$64.50	New York	$120.68	Massachusetts	$150.61	8
9	New Hampshire	$41.67	Michigan	$62.95	Rhode Island	$119.13	Michigan	$145.44	9
10	Idaho	$41.22	New Jersey	$62.75	Minnesota	$118.96	Vermont	$141.83	10
11	North Dakota	$40.68	Vermont	$62.75	Massachusetts	$115.42	Rhode Island	$141.57	11
12	Oregon	$40.32	Pennsylvania	$62.60	Connecticut	$114.91	Hawaii	$128.95	12
13	Illinois	$39.75	North Dakota	$58.70	Iowa	$110.79	North Dakota	$122.03	13
14	Iowa	$39.59	Illinois	$58.30	Vermont	$110.44	Oregon	$122.03	
15	Utah	$39.30	California	$57.35	Wyoming	$103.11	New Hampshire	$120.08	15
16	Wyoming	$38.81	Washington	$56.15	Pennsylvania	$102.33	Montana	$118.71	16
17	Rhode Island	$38.60	Kansas	$55.90	Kansas	$100.23	Wyoming	$116.09	17
18	Michigan	$36.75	Rhode Island	$54.75	North Dakota	$99.64	Maine	$115.79	18
19	Kansas	$36.46	Iowa	$52.90	Idaho	$99.45	New Jersey	$114.04	19
20	Hawaii	$35.29	Colorado	$52.20	New Hampshire	$97.52	Utah	$112.89	20
21	Colorado	$34.33	Idaho	$51.15	New Jersey	$96.50	Pennsylvania	$110.93	21
22	Montana	$33.54	Utah	$50.15	Utah	$95.61	Nebraska	$109.78	22
23	New Mexico	$33.11	South Dakota	$48.15	Nebraska	$94.30	Iowa	$107.53	23
24	Alaska	$32.86	Virginia	$47.80	Illinois	$88.63	Kansas	$106.65	24
25	Oklahoma	$31.67	Oregon	$45.80	Ohio	$87.53	Colorado	$105.01	25
26	South Dakota	$31.10	Nebraska	$45.70	Colorado	$86.12	Maryland	$104.30	26
27	Pennsylvania	$30.84	Ohio	$44.50	Oklahoma	$84.57	Illinois	$100.01	27
28	Nebraska	$30.75	Maryland	$43.20	Maine	$81.92	Ohio	$95.75	28
29	Vermont	$30.68	Wyoming	$43.00	Delaware	$81.55	Virginia	$93.76	29
30	Ohio	$30.47	Indiana	$42.25	Montana	$81.37	Idaho	$92.87	30
31	Maryland	$29.89	Maine	$40.40	South Dakota	$78.93	Delaware	$91.49	31
32	Arizona	$29.38	Montana	$40.15	Maryland	$78.15	South Dakota	$91.05	32
33	Indiana	$29.11	Oklahoma	$38.30	Virginia	$75.42	Oklahoma	$90.47	33
34	Maine	$27.39	Delaware	$35.55	Nevada	$73.38	New Mexico	$83.64	34
35	Nevada	$27.22	Kentucky	$32.25	Indiana	$70.64	Missouri	$83.59	35
36	WEST VIRGINIA	$24.41	Nevada	$32.05	Missouri	$70.17	North Carolina	$82.54	36
37	Kentucky	$23.88	Arizona	$32.00	North Carolina	$64.05	Indiana	$77.07	37
38	Georgia	$23.55	New Mexico	$31.80	Florida	$63.63	Florida	$76.26	38
39	Louisiana	$23.34	North Carolina	$31.60	Kentucky	$62.75	Nevada	$74.76	39
40	Virginia	$23.31	Missouri	$31.05	WEST VIRGINIA	$62.69	Arizona	$74.69	40
41	Missouri	$23.01	Texas	$29.85	Arizona	$60.95	WEST VIRGINIA	$72.75	41
42	Delaware	$22.73	Tennessee	$29.70	New Mexico	$58.87	Kentucky	$71.84	42
43	North Carolina	$19.90	Georgia	$28.15	Arkansas	$49.92	Georgia	$70.48	43
44	Tennessee	$18.72	WEST VIRGINIA	$27.10	Georgia	$47.27	South Carolina	$64.95	44
45	Texas	$17.75	Arkansas	$26.60	Louisiana	$44.97	Arkansas	$55.76	45
46	Florida	$16.93	Florida	$24.45	Tennessee	$43.22	Louisiana	$55.73	46
47	Arkansas	$15.76	Louisiana	$20.35	Alabama	$38.70	Texas	$53.52	47
48	South Carolina	$14.73	South Carolina	$19.70	South Carolina	$36.80	Tennessee	$49.13	48
49	Alabama	$9.98	Alabama	$15.50	Texas	$36.06	Alabama	$38.86	49
50	Mississippi	$9.36	Mississippi	$13.45	Mississippi	$29.17	Mississippi	$34.51	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961.
"THE BOOK OF THE STATES", 1972-73, Council of State Governments, Lexington, Ky.
"SOCIAL SECURITY BULLETIN, ANNUAL STATISTICAL SUPPLEMENT", 1980 and 1987.

(1) The average payment exclues a grant for special needs for third quarter of 1971 of $7,580.000. If amount were included, the average payment would be $94.75.

Note: Includes non-medical vendor payments, unemployed father segment and AFDC foster-care data.

TABLE 6

AVERAGE MONTHLY PAYMENT FOR AID TO AGED
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$69	U.S. Avg.	$78	U.S. Avg. (1)	$94	U.S. Avg. (1)	$174	
1	New York	$114	New Hampshire	$169	Florida	$115	California	$254	1
2	Connecticut	$113	Alaska	$138	Alaska(2)	$114	New York	$211	2
3	Colorado	$100	Iowa	$123	Hawaii	$114	Hawaii	$209	3
4	California	$94	California	$117	Arizona(2)	$108	New Jersey	$191	4
5	Minnesota	$92	Wiscorsin	$107	California	$103	Florida	$186	5
6	New Jersey	$91	New York	$105	New Jersey	$103	Massachusetts	$173	6
	Wisconsin	$91	Pennsylvania	$102	New York	$103	Alaska(2)	$167	7
8	North Dakota	$89	Connecticut	$101	Louisiana	$101	Nevada	$165	8
	Washington	$89	Massachusetts	$98	WEST VIRGINIA(2)	$98	Arizona(2)	$164	9
	Massachusetts	$89	Hawaii	$96	Illinois(2)	$96	Connecticut(2)	$162	10
11	Oklahoma	$85	North Dakota	$90	New Mexico(2)	$96	Illinois(2)	$162	
12	Iowa	$84	New Jersey	$78	Oklahoma	$96	Washington	$162	
13	New Hampshire	$83	Louisiana	$78	Connecticut(2)	$95	Michigan	$158	13
14	Kansas	$81	Minnesota	$77	Kentucky(2)	$95	Pennsylvania	$156	14
	Rhode Island	$81	Michigan	$77	Mississippi	$95	Utah	$156	
16	Oregon	$80	Missouri	$76	Georgia	$93	Rhode Island	$150	16
17	Michigan	$79	Colorado	$76	Alabama(2)	$92	Wisconsin	$150	
18	Illinois	$78	Vermont	$75	Missouri(2)	$92	Colorado(2)	$146	18
	Utah	$78	Delaware	$74	Utah(2)	$92	Vermont	$144	19
20	Wyoming	$76	Nevada	$73	Colorado(2)	$91	Louisiana	$143	20
	Nevada	$76	Alabama	$71	Maryland	$90	Maryland	$143	
22	Nebraska	$75	Arizona	$71	Nevada	$90	New Mexico(2)	$140	22
23	Ohio	$74	Oklahoma	$69	Pennsylvania	$90	Texas(2)	$137	23
24	New Mexico	$73	Virginia	$69	Texas(3)	$90	WEST VIRGINIA(2)	$137	
	Idaho	$73	WEST VIRGINIA	$68	Washington	$89	Kentucky(2)	$136	25
26	Louisiana	$71	Washington	$67	Massachusetts	$88	Alabama(2)	$134	26
27	Alabama	$69	Montana	$67	Michigan	$88	Mississippi	$134	
28	Hawaii	$68	Kansas	$66	North Carolina(2	$88	North Carolina(2	$132	28
29	Vermont	$67	Arkansas	$65	Ohio	$88	Ohio	$132	
30	Maine	$66	North Carolina	$64	South Carolina(2	$88	Oklahoma(2)	$132	
	Pennsylvania	$66	Illinois	$64	Tennessee	$88	Virginia(2)	$132	
32	Alaska	$65	Maryland	$63	Arkansas	$87	Georgia	$130	32
	Indiana	$65	Idaho	$63	Virginia(2)	$86	Missouri	$130	
34	Montana	$64	Texas	$63	Oregon(2)	$84	Minnesota(2)	$129	34
	Missouri	$64	Ohio	$61	Rhode Island	$83	Oregon(2)	$129	
36	South Dakota	$63	Maine	$61	Kansas	$82	South Carolina(2	$128	36
	Maryland	$63	Nebraska	$60	Indiana(2)	$80	Tennessee	$127	37
38	Arizona	$61	Wyoming	$59	North Dakota(2)	$80	Kansas	$126	38
39	Florida	$58	Oregon	$58	Vermont	$80	Delaware	$124	39
40	Texas	$53	Rhode Island	$57	Delaware	$79	Arkansas	$121	40
41	Arkansas	$52	Kentucky	$57	Idaho(2)	$79	Wyoming(2)	$121	
42	Virginia	$51	New Mexico	$56	Minnesota(2)	$79	Indiana(2)	$120	42
	Delaware	$51	Florida	$56	New Hampshire(2)	$78	North Dakota(2)	$117	43
44	Kentucky	$50	Indiana	$55	South Dakota	$78	Montana	$114	44
45	Georgia	$47	Utah	$54	Wyoming(2)	$78	New Hampshire(2)	$114	
46	North Carolina	$44	Georgia	$53	Montana	$75	South Dakota	$110	46
47	Tennessee	$42	Tennessee	$51	Nebraska(2)	$75	Idaho(2)	$109	47
48	South Carolina	$41	Mississippi	$50	Iowa	$73	Iowa	$109	
49	WEST VIRGINIA	$39	South Carolina	$48	Maine	$72	Nebraska(2)	$107	49
50	Mississippi	$35	South Dakota	$7	Wisconsin	$71	Maine	$99	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961 and 1971.
SOCITY SECURITY BULLETIN, 1980 and 1987, Social Security Admin., U.S. Dept. of Health & Human Services.

(1) Includes persons with Federal SSI payments and/or federally administered state supplementation.
(2) Data for Federal SSI payments whether receiving Federal payments only or both Federal SSI and federally administered State supplementation.

TABLE 7

AVERAGE MONTHLY PAYMENT FOR AID TO DISABLED
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$68	U.S. Avg.	$97	U.S. Avg. (1)	$149	U.S. Avg. (1)	$282	
1	Massachusetts	$137	Alaska	$177	Arizona(2)	$165	California	$391	1
2	Connecticut	$127	Oregon	$176	New York	$163	New York	$321	2
3	Wisconsin	$110	New Hampshire	$146	WEST VIRGINIA(2)	$160	Massachusetts	$307	3
4	New York	$107	Iowa	$143	Maryland	$158	Washington	$302	4
5	North Dakota	$100	California	$139	Alaska(2)	$157	Wisconsin	$295	5
6	Michigan	$99	Hawaii	$134	Nevada	$156	Hawaii	$289	6
7	New Hampshire	$97	Connecticut	$130	California	$155	Michigan	$288	7
8	Washington	$96	Massachusetts	$130	Pennsylvania	$154	Vermont	$286	8
9	Oklahoma	$95	New York	$127	Kentucky(2)	$153	New Jersey	$283	9
	California	$95	Delaware	$125	Florida	$152	Pennsylvania	$283	
11	New Jersey	$94	New Jersey	$107	New Mexico(2)	$152	Alaska(2)	$277	11
12	Oregon	$88	Michigan	$106	Ohio	$152	Illinois(2)	$275	12
13	Kansas	$86	Vermont	$104	Louisiana	$151	Maryland	$270	13
14	Rhode Island	$85	North Dakota	$101	Mississippi	$151	Arizona(2)	$263	14
15	Utah	$84	Pennsylvania	$101	Connecticut(2)	$150	Ohio	$263	
16	Illinois	$83	Oklahoma	$97	Hawaii	$149	Connecticut(2)	$262	16
	Hawaii	$83	Washington	$97	Illinois(2)	$149	WEST VIRGINIA(2)	$262	
18	Iowa	$81	Wisconsin	$96	New Jersey	$149	Rhode Island	$261	18
	Wyoming	$81	Rhode Island	$94	Washington	$149	New Mexico(2)	$258	19
20	Ohio	$75	Maine	$93	Massachusetts	$148	Nevada	$255	20
	Nebraska	$75	Minnesota	$92	Tennessee	$148	Kentucky(2)	$253	21
22	Idaho	$74	Illinois	$91	New Hampshire(2)	$146	Delaware	$252	22
23	Montana	$73	Montana	$89	Missouri(2)	$145	Oregon(2)	$252	
24	Colorado	$71	Maryland	$86	Michigan	$144	Florida	$250	24
25	New Mexico	$70	Virginia	$84	North Carolina(2	$144	New Hampshire(2)	$250	
26	Maine	$68	Colorado	$83	Alabama(2)	$143	Montana	$248	26
27	Delaware	$65	Idaho	$80	Virginia(2)	$143	Louisiana	$247	27
	Maryland	$65	Arizona	$79	Colorado(2)	$142	Indiana(2)	$246	28
	Florida	$65	Kansas	$79	Delaware	$142	Wyoming(2)	$246	
	South Dakota	$65	Missouri	$77	Oregon(2)	$142	Missouri(2)	$241	30
31	Vermont	$63	North Carolina	$77	South Carolina(2	$142	Tennessee	$240	31
	Missouri	$63	Ohio	$76	Georgia	$141	Colorado(2)	$239	32
33	Minnesota	$62	Nebraska	$75	Montana	$141	Alabama(2)	$237	33
34	Virginia	$58	New Mexico	$75	Maine	$138	Mississippi	$237	
35	Pennsylvania	$57	Arkansas	$73	Oklahoma(2)	$138	Virginia(2)	$236	35
36	Louisiana	$56	Florida	$73	Vermont	$138	Utah(2)	$235	36
37	Texas	$54	Utah	$73	Texas(3)	$137	North Carolina(2	$234	37
	Kentucky	$54	South Dakota	$72	Idaho(2)	$135	Texas(2)	$233	38
39	Georgia	$52	Tennessee	$68	Indiana(2)	$135	Maine	$232	39
40	North Carolina	$50	Texas	$67	Rhode Island(2)	$135	South Carolina(2	$232	
41	South Carolina	$46	Wyoming	$67	Arkansas	$133	Idaho(2)	$231	41
	Tennessee	$46	Georgia	$63	Nebraska(2)	$132	Georgia	$229	42
43	WEST VIRGINIA	$42	WEST VIRGINIA	$63	North Dakota(2)	$131	Minnesota(2)	$227	43
44	Arkansas	$39	Mississippi	$59	Utah(2)	$129	Oklahoma(2)	$226	44
45	Alabama	$37	Indiana	$58	Wyoming(2)	$128	South Dakota	$226	
46	Mississippi	$35	Louisiana	$56	Iowa	$127	Iowa	$225	46
47	Alaska	$	South Carolina	$56	Wisconsin	$127	Arkansas	$222	47
48	Arizona	$	Alabama	$50	Kansas	$126	Kansas(2)	$221	48
49	Indiana	$	Kentucky	$16	South Dakota	$125	Nebraska(2)	$221	
50	Nevada	$	Nevada	$	Minnesota(2)	$121	North Dakota(2)	$214	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961 and 1971.
SOCIAL SECURITY BULLETIN, 1980 and 1987, Social Security Admin., U.S. Dept. of Health & Human Services.

(1) Includes persons with Federal SSI payments and/or federally administered state supplementation.

(2) Data for Federal SSI payments whether receiving Federal payments only or both Federal SSI and federally administered State supplementation.

$ Not computed on base of less than $500.

TABLE 8

AVERAGE MONTHLY PAYMENT FOR AID TO THE BLIND

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$73	U.S. Avg.	$104	U.S. Avg. (1)	$149	U.S. Avg. (1)	$288	
1	Massachusetts	$112	Alaska	$177	Kentucky(2)	$173	California	$404	1
2	New York	$111	New Hampshire	$169	WEST VIRGINIA(2)	$173	New York	$290	2
3	California	$108	California	$160	Pennsylvania	$170	Massachusetts	$285	3
4	Minnesota	$105	Massachusetts	$151	Arizona(2)	$165	Rhode Island	$285	
5	Oklahoma	$103	New York	$136	Connecticut(2)	$160	Hawaii	$279	5
	Connecticut	$103	Hawaii	$130	Hawaii	$159	Wisconsin	$279	
7	Nevada	$100	Iowa	$122	Tennessee	$159	Michigan	$274	7
	Iowa	$100	Pennsylvania	$121	Louisiana	$158	Pennsylvania	$273	8
9	Washington	$94	Delaware	$110	Maryland	$157	Vermont	$268	9
10	Nebraska	$92	Oklahoma	$106	New Mexico(2)	$157	Alaska(2)	$265	10
11	Utah	$88	Michigan	$106	Virginia(2)	$157	New Jersey	$265	
12	New Jersey	$87	North Dakota	$104	Idaho(2)	$156	Utah(2)	$265	
13	Wisconsin	$86	Oregon	$104	Oklahoma(2)	$156	Arizona(2)	$264	13
	New Hampshire	$86	Vermont	$102	Michigan	$155	Washington(2)	$264	
15	Wyoming	$85	Connecticut	$101	New York	$155	Connecticut(2)	$263	15
16	Illinois	$84	Minnesota	$101	South Carolina(2	$155	Nevada	$261	16
	Colorado	$84	New Jersey	$100	Alaska(2)	$154	Illinois(2)	$256	17
	Kansas	$84	Washington	$98	Florida	$154	Kentucky(2)	$254	18
19	Michigan	$82	South Dakota	$96	Illinois(2)	$152	WEST VIRGINIA (2	$253	19
20	Louisiana	$81	Maryland	$94	Rhode Island	$152	Idaho(2)	$250	20
21	Hawaii	$79	Montana	$94	South Dakota	$152	Maryland	$249	21
22	Rhode Island	$78	Illinois	$93	Georgia	$151	Montana	$248	22
	North Dakota	$78	Nebraska	$93	Mississippi	$151	Louisiana	$244	23
24	Ohio	$78	Nevada	$92	Washington	$150	North Dakota(2)	$242	24
25	Indiana	$74	Missouri	$91	Alabama(2)	$149	Oklahoma(2)	$242	
	Idaho	$74	Wisconsin	$91	Ohio	$149	Tennessee(2)	$242	
27	Alaska	$73	Colorado	$89	Indiana(2)	$148	Florida	$241	27
	Montana	$73	Maine	$88	New Jersey	$148	Texas(2)	$241	
	Arizona	$73	Utah	$87	North Carolina(2	$148	New Mexico(2)	$239	29
30	Pennsylvania	$72	Virginia	$86	North Dakota(2)	$148	South Carolina(2	$239	
31	Delaware	$70	North Carolina	$85	Texas(3)	$147	Maine	$238	31
32	Missouri	$65	Rhode Island	$85	Utah(2)	$146	Kansas	$235	32
	Maryland	$65	Idaho	$84	Arkansas	$143	Ohio	$235	
34	Maine	$64	Arizona	$81	California	$142	Indiana(2)	$234	34
	Oregon	$64	Arkansas	$80	Wyoming(2)	$142	Virginia(2)	$233	35
	Vermont	$64	Kansas	$79	New Hampshire(2)	$138	Wyoming(2)	$233	
37	New Mexico	$62	Texas	$79	Oregon(2)	$137	North Carolina(2	$231	37
	Florida	$62	New Mexico	$78	Colorado(2)	$136	Colorado(2)	$230	38
39	South Dakota	$60	Louisiana	$77	Nebraska(2)	$134	South Dakota(2)	$230	
40	Texas	$59	Florida	$75	Vermont	$134	Missouri	$229	40
41	Virginia	$58	Kentucky	$75	Maine	$133	Georgia	$228	41
42	Arkansas	$56	Ohio	$75	Kansas	$130	Alabama(2)	$227	42
43	North Carolina	$55	Indiana	$72	Minnesota(2)	$130	Mississippi	$227	
44	Georgia	$52	Alabama	$70	Massachusetts	$129	Arkansas	$224	44
	Kentucky	$52	Tennessee	$70	Missouri(2)	$129	Oregon(2)	$219	45
46	South Carolina	$47	WEST VIRGINIA	$69	Wisconsin	$129	Iowa	$218	46
	Tennessee	$47	Georgia	$67	Delaware	$127	Delaware	$217	47
48	WEST VIRGINIA	$42	South Carolina	$67	Iowa	$124	Nebraska(2)	$208	48
49	Alabama	$41	Mississippi	$59	Montana	$124	Minnesota(2)	$201	49
50	Mississippi	$38	Wyoming	*	Nevada	$123	New Hampshire(2)	$200	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961 and 1971.
SOCIAL SECURITY BULLETIN, 1980 and 1987, Social Security Admin., U.S. Dept. of Health & Human Services.

(1) Includes persons with Federal SSI payments and/or federally administered state supplementation.

(2) Data for Federal SSI payments whether receiving Federal payments only or both Federal SSI and federally administered State supplementation.

* Not computed on base of less than $500.

TABLE 9

FOOD STAMP PROGRAM
AVERAGE MONTHLY BENEFIT PER RECIPIENT
1970, 1979, 1985

Rank	State	1970	State	1979	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$7.09	U.S. Avg.	$30.29	U.S. Avg.	$44.51	
1	Alaska	$13.04	Alaska	$46.88	Hawaii	$78.48	1
2	South Carolina	$10.13	Arizona	$37.45	Alaska	$70.31	2
3	Mississippi	$9.81	New Hampshire	$35.87	Nevada	$54.72	3
4	Kentucky	$9.57	Nevada	$35.75	Illinois	$52.38	4
5	WEST VIRGINIA	$9.39	Florida	$35.02	Ohio	$51.57	5
6	Arkansas	$9.27	Hawaii	$34.73	Maryland	$50.59	6
7	New Mexico	$8.86	Maine	$34.04	Oregon	$50.06	7
8	Alabama	$8.33	New Mexico	$33.49	Idaho	$49.91	8
	North Dakota	$8.33	Tennessee	$33.20	Missouri	$49.04	9
	Wyoming	$8.33	Maryland	$33.03	Indiana	$49.02	10
11	Tennessee	$8.21	Idaho	$32.64	Kentucky	$48.79	11
12	North Carolina	$8.11	Ohio	$32.39	Florida	$48.65	12
13	Texas	$8.06	Montana	$32.03	Arizona	$47.82	13
14	Louisiana	$7.93	Louisiana	$31.96	Louisiana	$47.63	14
15	South Dakota	$7.89	Colorado	$31.60	WEST VIRGINIA	$46.59	15
16	Colorado	$7.74	South Dakota	$31.55	Texas	$46.52	16
17	Iowa	$7.52	Georgia	$31.46	Colorado	$45.72	17
	Maryland	$7.52	Washington	$31.46	Montana	$45.66	18
19	Maine	$7.29	Illinois	$31.39	Alabama	$45.37	19
20	Virginia	$7.19	Kentucky	$31.38	Wyoming	$45.09	20
21	Montana	$7.14	Texas	$31.24	Michigan	$44.79	21
22	Utah	$7.10	Indiana	$31.18	Delaware	$44.74	22
23	Washington	$7.09	Oregon	$31.17	South Dakota	$44.70	23
24	Ohio	$7.00	New Jersey	$31.04	Tennessee	$44.64	24
25	Florida	$6.86	Alabama	$31.02	New Mexico	$44.47	25
26	Georgia	$6.80	North Carolina	$30.78	Maine	$44.40	26
27	Nebraska	$6.75	South Carolina	$30.69	Mississippi	$44.24	27
28	Indiana	$6.71	Delaware	$30.67	Kansas	$44.13	28
29	Wisconsin	$6.60	Arkansas	$30.51	Utah	$44.13	
30	Kansas	$6.48	Wyoming	$30.30	Pennsylvania	$44.06	30
31	New Jersey	$6.28	WEST VIRGINIA	$30.26	South Carolina	$43.80	31
32	California	$6.22	Missouri	$29.85	New York	$43.52	32
33	Missouri	$5.90	Mississippi	$29.64	Iowa	$43.42	33
34	Pennsylvania	$5.69	Massachusetts	$29.33	New Jersey	$43.13	34
35	Rhode Island	$5.36	Virginia	$29.06	Georgia	$43.09	35
36	Hawaii	$5.26	North Dakota	$28.89	Virginia	$43.03	36
37	Minnesota	$5.19	Iowa	$28.41	Oklahoma	$41.99	37
38	Vermont	$5.16	Vermont	$28.13	New Hampshire	$41.73	38
39	Michigan	$4.97	New York	$27.46	Washington	$41.07	39
40	Oregon	$4.73	Nebraska	$27.23	North Carolina	$41.01	40
41	Connecticut	$4.69	Kansas	$27.11	Massachusetts	$40.11	41
	Illinois	$4.69	California	$26.85	Rhode Island	$39.61	42
43	New York	$4.56	Pennsylvania	$26.32	Arkansas	$39.56	43
44	Idaho	$1.85	Utah	$26.16	North Dakota	$39.15	44
45	Massachusetts	$1.67	Minnesota	$26.11	Minnesota	$38.62	45
46	Arizona	$0.00	Oklahoma	$25.73	Nebraska	$38.66	46
47	Delaware	$0.00	Connecticut	$25.08	Vermont	$36.59	47
48	Nevada	$0.00	Rhode Island	$24.46	Connecticut	$34.89	48
49	New Hampshire	$0.00	Wisconsin	$23.26	Wisconsin	$32.95	49
50	Oklahoma	$0.00	Michigan	$21.53	California	$31.10	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1971.
THE BOOK OF THE STATES, 1980-81, Council of State Governments, Lexington, Kentucky.
FOOD AND NUTRITION SERVICE, U.S. Department of Agriculture.

TABLE 10

AVERAGE WEEKLY UNEMPLOYMENT BENEFITS
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$32.87	U.S. Avg.	$50.31	U.S. Avg.	$99.52	U.S. Avg.	$134.00	
1	Ohio	$42.45	Connecticut	$60.26	Ohio	$124.81	Minnesota	$166.00	1
2	California	$39.92	Hawaii	$58.85	Illinois	$123.66	Wyoming	$164.00	2
3	Wyoming	$39.38	New Jersey	$58.33	Minnesota	$120.59	Texas	$160.00	3
4	Colorado	$37.96	Colorado	$57.29	Wisconsin	$118.19	Alaska	$158.00	4
5	Wisconsin	$37.58	Michigan	$56.49	Iowa	$114.62	New Jersey	$156.00	5
6	Nevada	$37.56	Wisconsin	$55.21	Pennsylvania	$114.09	Colorado	$155.00	6
7	Alaska	$36.45	California	$54.05	Louisiana	$110.19	Utah	$154.00	7
8	Massachusetts	$36.38	New York	$53.99	Colorado	$110.18	Connecticut	$153.00	8
9	Connecticut	$36.24	Washington	$52.99	Washington	$109.53	Massachusetts	$153.00	
10	Michigan	$36.19	Iowa	$52.07	North Dakota	$108.07	Michigan	$153.00	
11	New York	$35.40	Illinois	$51.85	Utah	$106.81	Pennsylvania	$153.00	
12	Oregon	$35.35	Massachusetts	$51.36	Delaware	$106.22	Louisiana	$150.00	12
13	Idaho	$34.95	Kansas	$50.64	Hawaii	$104.82	Kansas	$149.00	13
14	Kansas	$34.11	Rhode Island	$50.52	Connecticut	$104.78	North Dakota	$149.00	
15	Illinois	$34.10	Maryland	$50.41	Kansas	$104.12	Ohio	$148.00	15
16	Delaware	$33.57	Delaware	$50.19	WEST VIRGINIA	$103.69	Oklahoma	$146.00	16
17	Utah	$33.18	Pennsylvania	$49.74	Wyoming	$103.25	Hawaii	$145.00	17
18	New Jersey	$32.49	Minnesota	$49.53	Michigan	$102.14	Delaware	$143.00	18
19	Washington	$32.20	Alaska	$49.49	Idaho	$100.02	WEST VIRGINIA	$142.00	19
20	Hawaii	$31.74	Ohio	$49.09	Kentucky	$99.54	Illinois	$141.00	20
21	Pennsylvania	$31.11	Missouri	$48.67	Montana	$99.13	Wisconsin	$141.00	
22	Indiana	$31.04	Idaho	$47.57	Nevada	$99.13	Iowa	$139.00	22
23	Arizona	$30.80	Nevada	$47.35	New Jersey	$99.02	Oregon	$138.00	23
24	Maryland	$30.63	New Hampshire	$46.31	Oregon	$98.68	Washington	$137.00	24
25	Louisiana	$30.31	Arizona	$45.38	Oklahoma	$98.09	Maryland	$136.00	25
26	Nebraska	$30.04	Wyoming	$45.08	Massachusetts	$98.01	New York	$135.00	26
27	Iowa	$29.85	Oregon	$44.59	South Dakota	$97.93	Idaho	$133.00	27
28	Rhode Island	$29.61	North Dakota	$44.54	Virginia	$95.55	Nevada	$133.00	
29	New Mexico	$29.33	Kentucky	$43.98	Nebraska	$95.13	Rhode Island	$129.00	29
30	South Dakota	$29.21	Louisiana	$43.80	New York	$94.02	Virginia	$127.00	30
31	Minnesota	$28.89	Maine	$43.43	Rhode Island	$91.70	Montana	$125.00	31
32	Kentucky	$28.71	New Mexico	$43.23	Vermont	$90.52	Florida	$123.00	32
33	North Dakota	$28.68	Utah	$43.08	Maryland	$89.30	Maine	$122.00	33
34	Missouri	$28.61	Georgia	$42.50	Arkansas	$88.03	New Mexico	$121.00	34
35	Montana	$27.29	Nebraska	$42.48	Missouri	$87.94	Vermont	$121.00	
36	Vermont	$27.27	Virginia	$41.07	Maine	$86.16	California	$118.00	36
37	Florida	$27.37	Vermont	$40.95	Texas	$85.35	Arkansas	$117.00	37
38	New Hampshire	$26.65	Texas	$40.33	California	$85.25	North Carolina	$117.00	
39	Oklahoma	$26.17	Indiana	$39.96	New Hampshire	$85.01	New Hampshire	$115.00	39
40	Georgia	$24.70	South Carolina	$39.61	North Carolina	$83.38	Arizona	$111.00	40
41	Texas	$24.27	Tennessee	$39.60	New Mexico	$82.91	Nebraska	$111.00	
42	Mississippi	$23.76	Alabama	$39.20	Indiana	$82.63	Georgia	$109.00	42
43	Virginia	$23.54	Arkansas	$38.28	Arizona	$82.16	South Dakota	$108.00	43
44	Alabama	$23.24	South Dakota	$37.72	Alaska	$81.90	Kentucky	$107.00	44
45	Tennessee	$23.19	North Carolina	$37.62	South Carolina	$79.41	Missouri	$107.00	
46	WEST VIRGINIA	$22.92	Montana	$37.53	Georgia	$78.68	South Carolina	$100.00	46
47	Arkansas	$22.32	Florida	$35.83	Tennessee	$76.64	Alabama	$99.00	47
48	South Carolina	$22.14	Oklahoma	$35.18	Alabama	$76.03	Indiana	$99.00	
49	Maine	$21.86	Mississippi	$34.73	Florida	$74.10	Mississippi	$93.00	49
50	North Carolina	$20.59	WEST VIRGINIA	$33.50	Mississippi	$70.38	Tennessee	$92.00	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961, 1971 and 1988, U.S. Department of Commerce.
SOCIAL SECURITY BULLETIN, November, 1980.

Note: Excludes program for federal employees and for ex-servicemen; includes unemployment compensation for state and local government employees where covered by state law.

TABLE 11

WORKER'S COMPENSATION MAXIMUM BENEFITS PER WEEK FOR TEMPORARY/TOTAL DISABILITY
1960, 1969, 1979, 1988

Rank	State	1960	State	1969	State	1979	State	1988	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$46.84	U.S. Avg.	$65.58	U.S. Avg.	$202.00	U.S. Avg.	$348.34	
1	Arizona	$150.00	Arizona	$150.00	Alaska(2)	$654.30	Alaska(2)	$1,094.00	1
2	Alaska	$100.00	Connecticut(1)	$120.00	Iowa	$352.00	Connecticut(1)	$643.00	2
3	Hawaii	$75.00	Alaska	$113.00	Illinois	$342.19	Iowa	$632.00	3
4	Oregon	$66.92	Hawaii	$112.50	Maine	$306.23	Illinois	$554.27	4
5	California	$65.00	Idaho(1)	$99.00	Oregon	$241.70	New Hampshire	$525.00	5
6	Nevada	$57.12	Michigan(1)	$98.00	Ohio	$241.00	Vermont	$486.00	6
7	Michigan(1)	$57.00	Illinois(1)	$91.00	Wyoming	$239.59	Maine	$447.92	7
8	Washington(1)	$56.77	New Jersey	$91.00	WEST VIRGINIA	$237.00	Massachusetts(1)	$411.00	8
9	Wisconsin	$54.00	California	$87.50	Nevada	$229.71	Michigan(2)	$397.00	9
10	Wyoming	$53.08	New York	$85.00	Massachusetts(1)	$227.31	Idaho(1)	$392.50	10
11	North Dakota(1)	$53.00	Washington(1)	$81.23	Pennsylvania	$227.00	Ohio	$385.00	11
12	Illinois(1)	$51.00	Oregon(1)	$80.00	Minnesota	$226.00	Maryland	$382.00	12
13	Delaware	$50.00	Nevada(1)	$79.96	Colorado	$222.74	Pennsylvania	$377.00	13
	New York	$50.00	Wisconsin	$73.00	Connecticut(1)	$222.00	Minnesota	$376.00	14
15	Utah(1)	$49.50	Massachusetts	$70.00	Maryland	$220.00	Colorado	$357.63	15
16	Ohio	$49.00	Minnesota	$70.00	Wisconsin	$218.00	North Carolina	$356.00	16
17	Idaho(1)	$48.00	New Hampshire	$67.00	New York	$215.00	Oregon	$355.04	17
18	Massachusetts	$45.00	Montana(1)	$65.00	Indiana	$210.00	Nevada	$353.01	18
	Minnesota	$45.00	Utah(1)	$65.00	Utah(1)	$210.00	Wyoming	$352.70	19
	Missouri	$45.00	Missouri	$63.50	Hawaii	$200.00	WEST VIRGINIA	$350.83	20
21	Iowa(1)	$44.00	Wyoming(1)	$63.46	Rhode Island(1)	$199.00	Wisconsin(2)	$348.00	21
22	Montana(1)	$42.50	Ohio	$63.00	Virginia	$199.00	Florida(2)	$344.00	22
	Pennsylvania	$42.50	Pennsylvania	$60.00	Montana(2)	$198.00	Virginia	$344.00	
24	Florida	$42.00	Colorado	$59.50	North Dakota(1)	$196.00	Rhode Island(1)	$337.00	24
25	Colorado	$40.25	Indiana	$57.00	Florida(2)	$195.00	Utah(1)	$335.00	25
26	Maryland	$40.00	Iowa(1)	$56.00	New Hampshire	$195.00	Hawaii	$334.00	26
	New Hampshire	$40.00	Vermont	$56.00	North Carolina	$194.00	Alabama	$331.00	27
	New Jersey	$40.00	Maryland	$55.00	Arizona	$192.32	Kentucky	$330.53	28
29	Indiana	$39.00	Nebraska	$55.00	Vermont(1)	$192.00	New Jersey	$320.00	29
	Maine	$39.00	Kentucky	$52.00	Washington	$186.88	South Carolina	$319.20	30
31	Kansas	$38.00	Virginia	$51.00	New Mexico	$186.38	New York	$300.00	31
	New Mexico	$38.00	Alabama	$50.00	Michigan(1)	$185.00	Montana(2)	$299.00	32
33	Nebraska	$37.00	Delaware	$50.00	South Carolina	$185.00	North Dakota(1)	$299.00	
34	Kentucky	$36.00	Georgia	$50.00	Nebraska	$180.00	Washington(2)	$288.70	34
	Rhode Island	$36.00	North Carolina	$50.00	South Dakota	$175.00	South Dakota	$272.00	35
	Vermont	$36.00	South Carolina	$50.00	Idaho(1)	$173.70	New Mexico	$270.97	36
37	Arkansas	$35.00	Arkansas	$49.00	Delaware	$164.71	Missouri	$269.81	37
	Louisiana	$35.00	Florida	$49.00	New Jersey	$156.00	Louisiana	$262.00	38
	Mississippi	$35.00	Kansas	$49.00	California	$154.00	Kansas	$256.00	39
	North Carolina	$35.00	Louisiana	$49.00	Louisiana	$149.00	Arizona(1)	$253.19	40
	Oklahoma	$35.00	Texas	$49.00	Kansas	$148.00	Delaware	$250.53	41
	South Carolina	$35.00	New Mexico	$48.00	Oklahoma	$141.00	Nebraska	$235.00	42
	South Dakota	$35.00	Tennessee	$47.00	Alabama	$136.00	Oklahoma	$231.00	43
	Texas	$35.00	Maine	$46.05	Arkansas	$126.00	Texas	$231.00	
	Virginia	$35.00	Oklahoma	$45.00	Missouri	$125.00	California	$224.00	45
	WEST VIRGINIA	$35.00	South Dakota	$44.00	Kentucky	$121.00	Tennessee	$210.00	46
47	Tennessee	$34.00	Mississippi	$40.00	Texas(1)	$119.00	Indiana	$190.00	47
48	Alabama	$31.00	North Dakota	$30.80	Georgia	$110.00	Arkansas	$189.00	48
49	Georgia	$30.00	WEST VIRGINIA	$27.90	Tennessee	$107.00	Georgia	$175.00	49
50	Connecticut	$	Rhode Island(1)$$		Mississippi	$98.00	Mississippi	$140.00	50

Source: STATE WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION LAWS, Bulletin 161, May, 1960.
THE BOOK OF THE STATES, 1970-71, 1980-81 and 1988-89, Council of State Governments, Lexington, Ky.

(1) According to number of dependents.
(2) Payments are subject to Social Security benefits.
$ 55% of State's average wage, but not less than $20.00.
$$ 60% of State's average wage, but not less than $70.00.

HEALTH AND HOSPITALS

Table 1 reports per capita state and local expenditures for health and hospital services. Since 1980, West Virginia's spending on health and hospital services has increased by 40 percent, from $107.92 in 1980, to $146.15, per capita, in 1986. The State's ranking in 1986 was thirty-ninth. The national average in 1986 was $222.39.

Table 2 reveals state and local spending for health and hospitals per $1,000 personal income. West Virginia's rank in 1960 was forty-seventh; it rose to a high of twenty-second, in 1970 and dropped to twenty-ninth in 1980. The State's spending per $1,000 personal income in 1986 was $14.73, below the national average of $16.20.

The percent of state and local spending for health and hospital services is shown in Table 3. The U.S. average rose from 7.4 percent in 1980 to 8.9 percent in 1986. In 1986, West Virginia was ranked thirty-second, tied with Utah, at 7.0 percent, below the national average.

The following two tables show the infant mortality rate per 1,000 live births for both white and non-white persons. Table 4 reflects that the national white infant death rate declined by fifty-nine percent from 22.9 percent in 1960 to 9.3 percent in 1985. West Virginia's white infant death rate dropped considerably from the highest rank of first in 1970 (22.8 percent), to a rank of eighth, tied with Alabama, in 1985 (10.4 percent). The state of Wyoming has the highest infant (white) death rate, while Hawaii recorded the lowest rate.

Table 5 discloses the non-white infant death rates. The national mortality rate among non-white infants has improved substantially since 1960 when the rate was 43.2 percent; in 1985 the national average was 18.2 percent. In 1980, West Virginia ranked twenty-first (21.5 percent), but jumped to a ranking of eighth (20.6 percent) in 1985, above the national average.

The total number of hospital facilities in all states is found in Table 6. The national total has decreased from a high in 1970 with 7,123 facilities to 6,915 facilities in 1985. The number of hospital facilities in West Virginia has dropped from ninety-three and a ranking of twenty-eighth, tied with Colorado, to seventy-six in 1985 and a ranking of thirty-fourth.

Table 7 reflects the total number of hospital beds per 1,000 population. As in the previous table, the total number of hospital beds since 1960 also declined by some eighteen percent. The national total number of beds in 1985 was 1359.5. West Virginia's rank in 1985 was thirtieth, with 12.9 hospital beds per 1,000 population.

Table 8 shows the average daily hospital room charges by state. The national average steadily increased since 1976, when the room charge averaged $83 a day to an average room charge of $244 a day in 1987. In 1987, West Virginia ranked thirty-seventh, tied with Texas, with an average daily hospital room charge of $184.

TABLE 1

PER CAPITA STATE AND LOCAL EXPENDITURES FOR HEALTH AND HOSPITALS
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$21.09	U.S. Avg.	$47.57	U.S. Avg.	$142.04	U.S. Avg.	$222.39	
1	New York	$36.11	New York	$96.78	Georgia	$215.87	Wyoming	$463.53	1
2	Nevada	$30.56	Nevada	$83.10	Wyoming	$204.25	Georgia	$412.01	2
3	Hawaii	$30.53	Wyoming	$67.11	New York	$197.02	New York	$362.28	3
4	Wyoming	$29.82	Georgia	$63.43	South Carolina	$181.05	Alabama	$335.68	4
5	Massachusetts	$28.55	Hawaii	$57.22	Alabama	$179.28	Mississippi	$298.67	5
6	Florida	$27.04	California	$54.73	Louisiana	$178.19	Louisiana	$287.59	6
7	California	$26.31	Maryland	$53.29	Nevada	$177.78	Michigan	$277.91	7
8	Minnesota	$25.74	Massachusetts	$52.32	Michigan	$174.99	Nebraska	$270.28	8
9	Michigan	$25.37	Michigan	$52.01	Iowa	$173.75	South Carolina	$267.90	9
10	Maryland	$24.01	Minnesota	$49.04	Mississippi	$172.09	Alaska	$267.01	10
11	Georgia	$21.68	Florida	$46.72	Tennessee	$165.99	Massachusetts	$253.95	11
12	Alaska	$21.49	Colorado	$46.62	Minnesota	$157.09	California	$251.30	12
13	Colorado	$21.39	Mississippi	$45.12	Florida	$155.24	Minnesota	$244.61	13
14	Delaware	$21.38	Louisiana	$44.04	California	$153.84	Tennessee	$240.63	14
15	Connecticut	$21.08	Wisconsin	$43.69	Ohio	$150.46	Iowa	$238.83	15
16	Iowa	$20.93	Tennessee	$43.61	Alaska	$150.16	Florida	$229.02	16
17	Wisconsin	$20.69	Missouri	$43.60	Massachusetts	$147.83	Oklahoma	$218.81	17
18	Illinois	$19.83	Kansas	$43.52	Rhode Island	$147.73	Missouri	$210.16	18
19	Montana	$19.32	Idaho	$42.90	Maryland	$144.15	Wisconsin	$207.07	19
20	Nebraska	$19.31	Rhode Island	$42.20	Nebraska	$143.05	New Mexico	$204.54	20
21	Indiana	$19.07	Washington	$42.13	Hawaii	$141.70	Colorado	$202.38	21
22	Ohio	$18.79	Connecticut	$40.93	Wisconsin	$139.55	Indiana	$199.57	22
23	New Jersey	$18.72	Alabama	$40.41	New Mexico	$136.31	Virginia	$197.88	23
24	Missouri	$18.45	Indiana	$40.38	Missouri	$136.22	Washington	$192.93	24
25	Kansas	$18.04	Alaska	$40.05	Indiana	$133.49	Kansas	$191.23	25
26	Rhode Island	$17.97	Nebraska	$40.02	Colorado	$132.73	Rhode Island	$191.22	26
27	Oregon	$17.54	Illinois	$39.82	Kansas	$128.26	Texas	$190.47	27
28	Louisiana	$17.40	South Carolina	$39.66	Virginia	$127.67	Ohio	$186.43	28
29	New Hampshire	$17.24	Iowa	$39.15	Texas	$125.09	Hawaii	$184.71	29
30	Washington	$17.20	Delaware	$38.98	Idaho	$124.54	Nevada	$183.83	30
31	Virginia	$16.97	New Jersey	$38.40	North Carolina	$123.89	Idaho	$183.68	31
32	Tennessee	$16.90	Oregon	$36.10	Oklahoma	$116.94	North Carolina	$183.47	32
33	Mississippi	$15.23	Oklahoma	$35.00	Arkansas	$116.46	Connecticut	$182.44	33
34	North Carolina	$14.95	Pennsylvania	$34.21	Arizona	$110.12	Utah	$174.30	34
35	South Carolina	$14.88	Ohio	$34.09	Washington	$109.08	New Jersey	$167.01	35
36	Vermont	$14.83	New Mexico	$34.00	Oregon	$108.87	Arkansas	$159.25	36
37	Pennsylvania	$14.82	North Carolina	$33.78	New Jersey	$108.09	Oregon	$154.61	37
38	New Mexico	$14.51	Texas	$33.76	WEST VIRGINIA	$107.92	Illinois	$151.60	38
39	Maine	$14.37	Virginia	$33.45	Utah	$101.59	WEST VIRGINIA	$151.49	39
40	Oklahoma	$14.36	WEST VIRGINIA	$33.21	Illinois	$100.91	Delaware	$146.15	40
	Alabama	$14.36	Kentucky	$32.08	Connecticut	$98.51	North Dakota	$145.02	41
42	Idaho	$14.01	Arkansas	$31.60	Montana	$96.27	Montana	$144.68	42
43	Texas	$13.63	New Hampshire	$29.95	Pennsylvania	$93.76	Kentucky	$126.60	43
44	Arkansas	$13.53	Utah	$29.83	Kentucky	$91.26	Pennsylvania	$123.71	44
45	Utah	$12.39	Montana	$28.46	Vermont	$86.81	Arizona	$123.70	45
46	Arizona	$12.37	Vermont	$28.17	Delaware	$82.76	South Dakota	$121.30	46
47	Kentucky	$11.26	Arizona	$28.08	North Dakota	$80.69	New Hampshire	$112.23	47
48	South Dakota	$11.00	Maine	$26.35	South Dakota	$71.96	Maine	$110.93	48
49	North Dakota	$10.88	North Dakota	$23.75	New Hampshire	$64.45	Vermont	$105.75	49
50	WEST VIRGINIA	$10.77	South Dakota	$22.02	Maine	$63.87	Maryland	$105.61	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 2

STATE AND LOCAL EXPENDITURES FOR HEALTH AND HOSPITALS PER $1,000 PERSONAL INCOME
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$9.49	U.S. Avg.	$12.98	U.S. Avg.	$16.66	U.S. Avg.	$16.20	
1	Florida	$13.60	New York	$21.69	Georgia	$30.21	Wyoming	$34.89	1
2	Georgia	$13.48	Wyoming	$20.79	Mississippi	$28.91	Georgia	$33.55	2
3	Hawaii	$13.43	Georgia	$20.42	South Carolina	$27.29	Mississippi	$32.66	3
4	Mississippi	$12.98	Nevada	$19.93	Alabama	$26.58	Alabama	$31.71	4
5	New York	$12.95	Mississippi	$19.11	Louisiana	$24.59	Louisiana	$25.63	5
6	Wyoming	$12.78	Louisiana	$15.40	Tennessee	$23.70	South Carolina	$25.54	6
7	Minesota	$12.53	Tennessee	$15.29	Wyoming	$21.55	New York	$22.55	7
8	Massachusetts	$11.33	Alabama	$15.26	New York	$21.53	Tennessee	$21.59	8
9	Tennessee	$10.94	South Carolina	$14.64	Florida	$19.97	Michigan	$20.55	9
10	Michigan	$10.93	Idaho	$14.43	Iowa	$19.88	New Mexico	$19.11	10
11	Louisiana	$10.85	Hawaii	$14.39	Nevada	$19.23	Nebraska	$18.88	11
12	Nevada	$10.75	Florida	$14.16	New Mexico	$18.89	Iowa	$18.75	12
13	South Carolina	$10.65	Minnesota	$13.87	Michigan	$18.71	Oklahoma	$17.91	13
14	Iowa	$10.45	Maryland	$13.63	Minnesota	$17.80	Minnesota	$17.45	14
15	Arkansas	$10.10	Colorado	$13.59	Rhode Island	$17.70	Florida	$17.12	15
16	Maryland	$10.03	Michigan	$13.18	North Carolina	$17.58	Utah	$16.83	16
17	Alabama	$9.82	Massachusetts	$13.10	Arkansas	$17.57	Idaho	$16.49	17
18	California	$9.60	California	$13.09	Ohio	$17.37	Indiana	$16.05	18
19	Montana	$9.57	Missouri	$12.68	Idaho	$17.16	California	$16.01	19
20	Wisconsin	$9.53	Wisconsin	$12.55	Missouri	$16.68	Missouri	$15.98	20
21	North Carolina	$9.50	Arkansas	$12.24	Massachusetts	$16.53	North Carolina	$15.98	
22	Colorado	$9.22	WEST VIRGINIA	$12.23	Nebraska	$16.43	Wisconsin	$15.77	22
23	Virginia	$9.18	Kansas	$12.09	Wisconsin	$16.40	Massachusetts	$15.54	23
24	Nebraska	$9.14	New Mexico	$12.00	Hawaii	$16.36	Arkansas	$15.29	24
25	Indiana	$8.75	Oklahoma	$11.44	California	$15.97	Alaska	$15.05	25
26	Kansas	$8.72	North Carolina	$11.42	Indiana	$15.84	WEST VIRGINIA	$14.73	26
27	Missouri	$8.39	Rhode Island	$11.40	Maryland	$15.70	Texas	$14.39	27
28	New Hampshire	$8.31	Nebraska	$11.35	Virginia	$15.29	Ohio	$14.10	28
29	Rhode Island	$8.07	Kentucky	$11.22	WEST VIRGINIA	$15.20	Washington	$14.07	29
30	New Mexico	$8.03	Iowa	$11.20	Colorado	$15.17	Kansas	$13.94	30
	Ohio	$8.03	Indiana	$11.11	Texas	$15.14	Rhode Island	$13.84	31
32	Vermont	$7.98	Washington	$10.97	Utah	$15.09	Colorado	$13.82	32
33	Alaska	$7.86	Oregon	$10.39	Arizona	$14.50	Virginia	$13.80	33
34	Idaho	$7.80	Texas	$10.36	Oklahoma	$14.38	Hawaii	$13.47	34
	Maine	$7.80	Utah	$10.09	Kansas	$13.86	Montana	$13.06	35
36	Oklahoma	$7.77	Virginia	$10.07	Alaska	$13.19	Nebraska	$13.06	
37	Oregon	$7.76	Delaware	$9.53	Kentucky	$12.82	Oregon	$12.29	37
38	Illinois	$7.59	Illinois	$9.34	Oregon	$12.69	North Dakota	$11.93	38
39	Washington	$7.42	Pennsylvania	$9.34	Montana	$12.54	Kentucky	$11.70	39
40	Connecticut	$7.36	Alaska	$9.26	Vermont	$12.28	South Dakota	$10.86	40
41	Kentucky	$7.30	Montana	$9.09	Washington	$12.00	Delaware	$10.43	41
42	Delaware	$7.10	New Jersey	$9.08	New Jersey	$11.14	Illinois	$10.35	42
43	Texas	$7.08	Ohio	$9.04	Pennsylvania	$11.08	Connecticut	$10.14	43
44	New Jersey	$7.02	Connecticut	$9.00	Illinois	$10.47	Arizona	$10.06	44
45	Pennsylvania	$6.54	New Hampshire	$8.87	North Dakota	$9.74	New Jersey	$9.78	45
46	Utah	$6.49	Vermont	$8.78	Connecticut	$9.71	Maine	$9.41	46
47	WEST VIRGINIA	$6.43	Maine	$8.76	South Dakota	$9.67	Pennsylvania	$9.24	47
48	North Dakota	$6.25	Arizona	$8.71	Maine	$9.31	Vermont	$8.82	48
[illegible]	Arizona	$6.15	North Dakota	$7.92	Delaware	$9.07	New Hampshire	$7.72	49
50	South Dakota	$5.97	South Dakota	$7.35	New Hampshire	$8.01	Maryland	$6.77	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 3

HEALTH AND HOSPITAL EXPENDITURES AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL STATE AND LOCAL SPENDING
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	7.3%	U.S. Avg.	7.4%	U.S. Avg.	7.4%	U.S. Avg.	8.9%	
1	Georgia	9.7%	Georgia	11.6%	Georgia	13.3%	Georgia	18.7%	1
2	Massachusetts	9.6%	New York	10.5%	South Carolina	12.0%	Alabama	15.8%	2
	New York	9.6%	Nevada	9.8%	Mississippi	11.4%	Mississippi	15.3%	3
4	Florida	9.5%	Florida	8.9%	Alabama	11.3%	South Carolina	13.6%	4
5	Maryland	8.9%	Tennessee	8.8%	Florida	10.3%	Tennessee	12.5%	5
6	Michigan	8.4%	South Carolina	8.7%	Louisiana	10.2%	Louisiana	11.9%	6
7	Hawaii	8.3%	Mississippi	8.6%	Indiana	9.5%	Missouri	11.0%	7
8	South Carolina	8.1%	Alabama	8.0%	Tennessee	9.3%	Florida	10.8%	8
9	Virginia	8.0%	Maryland	7.9%	Missouri	9.3%	Nebraska	10.5%	9
10	Missouri	7.9%	Missouri	7.9%	Iowa	9.1%	Wyoming	10.4%	10
11	Minnesota	7.8%	Indiana	7.8%	Arkansas	8.7%	Indiana	10.0%	11
	Tennessee	7.8%	Louisiana	7.8%	Ohio	8.6%	Michigan	10.0%	
13	North Carolina	7.7%	Michigan	7.7%	North Carolina	8.2%	New York	10.0%	
14	Indiana	7.5%	Wyoming	7.7%	Idaho	8.1%	Iowa	9.8%	14
15	Nevada	7.3%	Massachusetts	7.6%	Michigan	7.9%	Oklahoma	9.8%	
	New Jersey	7.3%	Colorado	7.3%	Texas	7.9%	North Carolina	9.6%	16
17	Nebraska	7.2%	Idaho	7.3%	Virginia	7.9%	Massachusetts	9.4%	17
18	Iowa	7.1%	North Carolina	7.3%	Nevada	7.8%	Idaho	9.3%	18
	Wisconsin	7.1%	Kansas	7.2%	Wyoming	7.8%	California	8.9%	19
20	Rhode Island	7.0%	Nebraska	7.0%	New Mexico	7.5%	Virginia	8.9%	
21	California	6.9%	Rhode Island	6.8%	New York	7.5%	Arkansas	8.6%	21
	Illinois	6.9%	Arizona	6.7%	Minnesota	7.4%	Texas	8.6%	
	Ohio	6.9%	Minnesota	6.7%	Rhode Island	7.4%	Ohio	8.1%	23
24	Arkansas	6.8%	Texas	6.7%	Oklahoma	7.2%	Kansas	8.0%	24
	Connecticut	6.8%	Illinois	6.6%	Kansas	7.1%	Minnesota	8.0%	
26	Alabama	6.6%	California	6.5%	Colorado	7.0%	Colorado	7.9%	26
	Mississippi	6.6%	New Jersey	6.4%	Maryland	7.0%	New Mexico	7.6%	27
	Wyoming	6.6%	Ohio	6.4%	Wisconsin	7.0%	Rhode Island	7.6%	
29	Delaware	6.4%	Virginia	6.4%	California	6.9%	Wisconsin	7.6%	
30	New Hampshire	6.3%	Wisconsin	6.3%	Massachusetts	6.8%	Washington	7.5%	30
31	Alaska	6.2%	Oklahoma	6.1%	Hawaii	6.5%	Connecticut	7.1%	31
	Colorado	6.2%	Iowa	6.1%	WEST VIRGINIA	6.1%	Utah	7.0%	32
	Kansas	6.2%	Connecticut	6.0%	Nebraska	6.0%	WEST VIRGINIA	7.0%	
34	Montana	5.8%	Kentucky	6.0%	New Jersey	5.7%	Nevada	6.9%	34
	Pennsylvania	5.8%	WEST VIRGINIA	5.9%	Arizona	5.6%	Hawaii	6.8%	35
36	Kentucky	5.7%	Pennsylvania	5.7%	Connecticut	5.6%	Kentucky	6.6%	36
37	Maine	5.6%	New Hampshire	5.6%	Utah	5.6%	Illinois	6.5%	37
38	Texas	5.5%	Hawaii	5.5%	Illinois	5.5%	New Jersey	6.0%	38
39	Louisiana	5.4%	Washington	5.5%	Kentucky	5.5%	Oregon	5.8%	39
40	Washington	5.2%	Oregon	5.2%	Pennsylvania	5.3%	Pennsylvania	5.7%	40
41	Oklahoma	5.1%	New Mexico	5.1%	Oregon	4.9%	New Hampshire	5.5%	41
	Oregon	5.1%	Delaware	4.9%	Montana	4.8%	North Dakota	5.4%	42
43	WEST VIRGINIA	5.0%	Maine	4.8%	Vermont	4.8%	South Dakota	5.4%	
44	Idaho	4.9%	Utah	4.7%	Washington	4.3%	Delaware	5.2%	44
45	New Mexico	4.7%	Arizona	4.5%	New Hampshire	4.2%	Montana	5.2%	
46	Vermont	4.5%	Montana	4.2%	Delaware	4.1%	Arizona	4.9%	46
47	Arizona	4.0%	Vermont	3.9%	North Dakota	4.1%	Maine	4.8%	47
	Utah	4.0%	North Dakota	3.6%	South Dakota	4.0%	Maryland	4.1%	48
49	South Dakota	3.6%	South Dakota	3.5%	Maine	3.9%	Vermont	4.1%	
50	North Dakota	3.0%	Alaska	3.0%	Alaska	2.2%	Alaska	2.8%	50

Source: GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1960, 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4

INFANT DEATH RATES, WHITE*
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	22.9%	U.S. Avg.	17.8%	U.S. Avg.	11.0%	U.S. Avg.	9.3%	
1	New Mexico	30.9%	WEST VIRGINIA	22.8%	Oregon	12.2%	Wyoming	12.2%	1
2	Nevada	29.6%	Nevada	22.2%	North Carolina	12.1%	Delaware	11.6%	2
3	Alaska	27.9%	Montana	21.2%	Oklahoma	12.1%	Arkansas	10.9%	3
4	Wyoming	27.5%	Maine	21.0%	Kentucky	12.0%	Washington	10.9%	
5	Colorado	26.9%	Alaska	20.3%	Pennsylvania	11.9%	Oklahoma	10.8%	5
6	Arizona	26.6%	Oklahoma	20.3%	Tennessee	11.9%	New Mexico	10.6%	6
	Mississippi	26.6%	Louisiana	19.8%	Virginia	11.9%	Idaho	10.5%	7
8	Texas	26.3%	Colorado	19.7%	Arizona	11.8%	Alabama	10.4%	8
9	Kentucky	26.0%	Texas	19.6%	Florida	11.8%	WEST VIRGINIA	10.4%	
10	Maine	25.7%	Wyoming	19.6%	Montana	11.8%	Kentucky	10.3%	10
11	Tennessee	25.3%	New Mexico	19.5%	Illinois	11.7%	Indiana	10.0%	11
12	Alabama	24.9%	North Carolina	19.3%	North Dakota	11.7%	Montana	9.8%	12
13	WEST VIRGINIA	24.8%	Rhode Island	19.3%	Alabama	11.6%	Oregon	9.7%	13
14	Georgia	24.6%	Kentucky	18.8%	Hawaii	11.6%	Utah	9.7%	
	Virginia	24.6%	Tennessee	18.8%	Maryland	11.6%	Alaska	9.6%	15
16	Montana	24.2%	Massachusetts	18.7%	Iowa	11.5%	South Carolina	9.6%	
	South Dakota	24.2%	Alabama	18.6%	Washington	11.5%	Georgia	9.5%	17
	Vermont	24.2%	Michigan	18.6%	WEST VIRGINIA	11.4%	Pennsylvania	9.5%	
19	North Dakota	24.1%	Indiana	18.5%	New Mexico	11.3%	Arizona	9.4%	19
20	South Carolina	23.9%	Nebraska	18.5%	Ohio	11.2%	Iowa	9.4%	
21	New Hampshire	23.7%	Arizona	18.3%	Texas	11.2%	New York	9.4%	
22	Florida	23.6%	Iowa	18.3%	Mississippi	11.1%	North Carolina	9.4%	
23	Oregon	23.0%	Illinois	18.3%	Missouri	11.1%	Illinois	9.3%	23
24	Idaho	22.7%	Pennsylvania	18.2%	Rhode Island	10.9%	Michigan	9.3%	
	Oklahoma	22.7%	South Carolina	18.2%	Georgia	10.8%	Mississippi	9.3%	
	Washington	22.7%	Washington	18.1%	New York	10.8%	Ohio	9.3%	
27	Indiana	22.6%	New Hampshire	18.0%	South Carolina	10.8%	Virginia	9.3%	
	Louisiana	22.6%	Florida	17.8%	Idaho	10.7%	California	9.2%	28
	Pennslyvania	22.6%	Hawaii	17.8%	Nebraska	10.7%	Florida	9.2%	
30	Arkansas	22.5%	Vermont	17.6%	Vermont	10.7%	Maine	9.2%	
	California	22.5%	Idaho	17.3%	California	10.6%	New Hampshire	9.2%	
32	Rhode Island	22.4%	Minnesota	17.3%	Michigan	10.6%	Colorado	9.1%	32
33	Maryland	22.3%	Georgia	17.2%	Indiana	10.5%	Maryland	9.1%	
	North Carolina	22.3%	Ohio	17.2%	Louisiana	10.5%	Kansas	9.0%	34
35	Illinois	22.2%	Missouri	17.0%	Utah	10.5%	Missouri	9.0%	
	Ohio	22.2%	Virginia	17.0%	Arkansas	10.3%	Nebraska	9.0%	
37	Michigan	22.1%	New Jersey	16.9%	New Jersey	10.3%	Texas	9.0%	
38	New Jersey	21.9%	New York	16.9%	Connecticut	10.2%	South Dakota	8.9%	38
39	Iowa	21.7%	Kansas	16.7%	Massachusetts	10.1%	Tennessee	8.9%	
40	Minnesota	21.6%	South Dakota	16.7%	Nevada	10.0%	Minnesota	8.8%	40
41	Hawaii	21.5%	California	16.5%	New Hampshire	9.9%	New Jersey	8.8%	
	New York	21.5%	Maryland	16.4%	Colorado	9.8%	Nevada	8.7%	42
43	Missouri	21.4%	Delaware	16.3%	Delaware	9.8%	Louisiana	8.6%	43
44	Kansas	21.3%	Arizona	16.0%	Wisconsin	9.7%	Connecticut	8.5%	44
	Nebraska	21.3%	Massachusetts	16.0%	Minnesota	9.6%	Vermont	8.5%	
46	Wisconsin	21.2%	Oregon	16.0%	Kansas	9.5%	Wisconsin	8.5%	
47	Massachusetts	21.1%	Wisconsin	16.0%	Alaska	9.4%	North Dakota	8.4%	47
48	Connecticut	20.0%	Connecticut	15.5%	Maine	9.4%	Massachusetts	8.2%	48
49	Utah	18.8%	Utah	14.9%	Wyoming	9.3%	Rhode Island	8.1%	49
50	Delaware	17.8%	North Dakota	14.3%	South Dakota	9.0%	Hawaii	7.5%	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1970, 1976, and 1984.
DIVISION OF VITAL STATISTICS, U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 1987.

* Deaths per 1,000 live births.

TABLE 5

INFANT DEATH RATES, NON-WHITE
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	43.2%	U.S. Avg.	30.9%	U.S. Avg.	21.4%	U.S. Avg.	18.2%	
1	South Dakota	76.0%	Mississippi	39.2%	Delaware	27.9%	New Hampshire	29.9%	1
2	Alaska	68.2%	South Dakota	37.3%	New Hampshire(1)	27.5%	Delaware	25.8%	2
3	Arizona	60.8%	Nevada	37.0%	North Dakota(1)	27.5%	Michigan	22.4%	3
4	Mississippi	54.3%	North Carolina	36.1%	Utah(1)	27.3%	South Carolina	21.8%	4
5	Utah	54.0%	Alabama	36.0%	Iowa	27.2%	Illinois	21.4%	5
6	New Mexico	52.8%	Nebraska	34.6%	Illinois	26.3%	Connecticut	20.9%	6
7	North Carolina	52.4%	Pennsylvania	34.2%	Wyoming(1)	25.9%	Massachusetts	20.8%	7
8	Delaware	50.6%	Illinois	33.6%	Nebraska	25.2%	WEST VIRGINIA	20.6%	8
9	Wyoming	48.6%	Missouri	33.4%	Michigan	24.2%	Alaska	20.5%	9
10	South Carolina	48.5%	Virginia	33.3%	Mississippi	23.7%	Kentucky	20.5%	
11	Kentucky	48.3%	Florida	33.2%	Indiana	23.4%	Pennsylvaria	20.4%	11
12	Georgia	48.1%	New Jersey	33.0%	New Mexico(1)	23.1%	Tennessee	20.2%	12
13	Louisiana	46.9%	Georgia	32.9%	Pennsylvania	23.1%	Hawaii	20.0%	13
14	Florida	46.1%	Louisiana	32.3%	Ohio	23.0%	Indiana	19.5%	14
15	Virginia	45.5%	Texas	31.8%	South Carolina	22.9%	Virginia	19.2%	15
16	Missouri	45.4%	Delaware	31.6%	Florida	22.8%	Georgia	19.0%	16
17	Alabama	45.0%	Iowa	31.4%	Kentucky	22.0%	Maryland	18.9%	17
18	Maryland	44.6%	Massachusetts	31.4%	New Jersey	21.9%	Mississippi	18.9%	
19	Rhode Island	44.4%	Arkansas	31.1%	Oklahoma	21.8%	New Jersey	18.8%	19
20	Colorado	44.0%	South Carolina	31.1%	Alabama	21.6%	Oklahoma	18.5%	20
21	Texas	43.9%	Tennessee	30.6%	WEST VIRGINIA	21.5%	Florida	17.8%	21
22	Tennessee	43.5%	Connecticut	30.4%	Georgia	21.0%	North Carolina	17.8%	
23	North Dakota	43.3%	Michigan	30.4%	Missouri	20.7%	Nebraska	17.7%	23
24	Oklahoma	42.8%	New York	30.2%	Kansas	20.6%	Wisconsin	17.4%	24
25	New Jersey	41.7%	Wisconsin	29.8%	Louisiana	20.6%	Oregon	17.3%	25
26	New York	41.6%	Alaska	29.0%	Nevada	20.6%	Louisiana	17.2%	26
27	Pennsylvania	40.6%	Maryland	29.0%	Maryland	20.4%	Alabama	17.0%	27
28	Michigan	40.4%	New Mexico	28.9%	Arkansas	20.0%	Missouri	17.0%	
29	Illinois	39.6%	Ohio	28.7%	New York	20.0%	Ohio	16.9%	29
30	Ohio	39.4%	Arizona	28.0%	North Carolina	20.0%	Califronia	16.3%	30
31	Arkansas	38.7%	Indiana	27.8%	Virginia	19.8%	New York	16.1%	31
32	Indiana	37.7%	Kentucky	27.8%	Alaska(1)	19.5%	Colorado	15.9%	32
	WEST VIRGINIA	37.7%	Rhode Island	27.7%	Tennessee	19.3%	Minnesota	15.5%	33
34	Connecticut	36.9%	WEST VIRGINIA	27.7%	Colorado	19.1%	Texas	15.5%	
35	Washington	36.7%	Wyoming	27.6%	Connecticut	19.1%	Kansas	14.4%	35
36	Wisconsin	35.3%	Kansas	27.5%	Texas	18.8%	New Mexico	14.4%	
37	Iowa	35.2%	Washington	26.4%	Wisconsin	18.5%	Arkansas	14.2%	37
38	Montana	34.5%	Oklahoma	26.3%	Arizona	18.4%	Montana	13.2%	38
39	Massachusetts	34.4%	Maine	25.0%	California	18.0%	Washington	12.6%	39
40	Nebraska	34.3%	Montana	24.7%	Rhode Island(1)	17.4%	Arizona	12.4%	40
41	Nevada	33.9%	Minnesota	24.0%	Massachusetts	16.8%	Iowa	12.3%	41
42	Kansas	33.4%	Colorado	23.5%	Washington(1)	16.4%	Maine	12.0%	42
43	Idaho	33.3%	California	22.1%	Oregon	15.9%	Nevada	11.7%	43
44	California	29.7%	New Hampshire	20.5%	Hawaii(1)	11.8%	Rhode Island	10.7%	44
45	Oregon	29.2%	Vermont	19.2%	Minnesota	9.6%	Wyoming	9.9%	45
46	Hawaii	24.0%	Hawaii	18.9%	Idaho	§	NOrth Dakota	6.9%	46
47	Minnesota	22.6%	Utah	17.5%	Maine	§	Utah	3.3%	47
48	Maine	12.9%	North Dakota	14.3%	Montana	§	Idaho	§	48
49	New Hampshire	10.6%	Oregon	14.1%	South Dakota	§	South Dakota	§	49
50	Vermont	§	Idaho	11.6%	Vermont	§	Vermont	§	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1970, 1976, and 1984.
DIVISION OF VITAL STATISTICS, U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 1987.

Note: Deaths per 1,000 live births.

(1) Based on a frequency of less than 20 deaths.
§ Represents zero.

TABLE 6

TOTAL NUMBER OF HOSPITAL FACILITIES
1960, 1970, 1980, and 1985

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Total	6,876	U.S. Total	7,123	U.S. Total	6,965	U.S. Total	6,915	
1	Texas	550	California	644	California	600	California	593	1
2	New York	474	Texas	556	Texas	561	Texas	561	2
3	California	466	New York	430	New York	348	New York	344	3
4	Pennsylvania	329	Pennsylvania	321	Pennsylvania	316	Pennsylvania	310	4
5	Illinois	327	Illinois	312	Illinois	283	Illinois	281	5
6	Ohio	263	Michigan	246	Florida	253	Florida	253	6
7	Michigan	252	Ohio	244	Ohio	239	Ohio	237	7
8	Massachusetts	211	Massachusetts	207	Michigan	236	Michigan	233	8
9	Minnesota	203	Minnesota	205	Georgia	191	Georgia	191	9
10	Wisconsin	198	Florida	196	Minnesota	185	Minnesota	182	10
11	North Carolina	174	Wisconsin	195	Massachusetts	183	Massachusetts	178	11
12	Florida	162	Georgia	166	Missouri	168	Missouri	169	12
13	Tennessee	154	Kansas	165	Wisconsin	168	Kansas	166	13
14	Kansas	151	North Carolina	164	Tennessee	167	Tennessee	164	14
15	New Jersey	147	Tennessee	158	Kansas	165	Wisconsin	163	15
16	Missouri	144	Louisiana	148	North Carolina	160	North Carolina	159	16
17	Georgia	142	Iowa	146	Louisiana	157	Louisiana	157	17
18	Louisiana	139	Missouri	144	Alabama	145	Alabama	146	18
19	Indiana	135	Oklahoma	140	Oklahoma	141	Oklahoma	142	19
20	Kentucky	132	Alabama	138	Iowa	140	Iowa	139	20
	Oklahoma	132	New Jersey	137	New York	136	Virginia	137	21
22	Alabama	130	Indiana	135	Virginia	136	Indiana	133	22
23	Iowa	127	Kentucky	131	Indiana	134	New Jersey	131	23
	Washington	127	Washington	130	Washington	124	Washington	121	24
25	Virginia	119	Virginia	129	Kentucky	119	Kentucky	118	25
26	Nebraska	113	Nebraska	113	Mississippi	117	Mississippi	118	
27	Mississippi	106	Mississippi	107	Nebraska	109	Nebraska	110	27
28	Colorado	93	Arkansas	96	Colorado	99	Arkansas	97	28
	WEST VIRGINIA	93	Colorado	94	Arkansas	96	Colorado	97	
30	Arkansas	90	Oregon	93	South Carolina	90	South Carolina	91	30
	South Carolina	80	WEST VIRGINIA	88	Maryland	85	Maryland	85	31
32	Maryland	79	South Carolina	87	Oregon	82	Oregon	83	32
	Oregon	79	Maryland	84	Arizona	79	Arizona	80	33
34	Connecticut	71	Arizona	80	WEST VIRGINIA	79	WEST VIRGINIA	76	34
35	Arizona	70	Connecticut	67	South Dakota	69	South Dakota	68	35
36	South Dakota	65	South Dakota	66	Connecticut	67	Montana	67	36
37	North Dakota	64	Montana	64	Montana	67	Connecticut	65	37
38	Montana	60	North Dakota	64	North Dakota	60	North Dakota	59	38
39	Maine	57	Maine	56	New Mexico	54	New Mexico	57	39
40	New Mexico	54	New Mexico	56	Idaho	51	Idaho	52	40
41	Idaho	49	Idaho	53	Maine	50	Maine	47	41
42	New Hampshire	38	Utah	38	Utah	42	Utah	42	42
43	Utah	36	New Hampshire	34	New Hampshire	33	New Hampshire	34	43
44	Wyoming	33	Hawaii	32	Wyoming	31	Wyoming	31	44
45	Hawaii	32	Wyoming	31	Hawaii	27	Hawaii	27	45
46	Vermont	31	Alaska	26	Alaska	26	Alaska	25	46
47	Rhode Island	24	Rhode Island	25	Nevada	25	Nevada	25	
48	Alaska	23	Vermont	25	Rhode Island	21	Rhode Island	21	48
49	Nevada	19	Nevada	22	Vermont	19	Vermont	19	49
50	Delaware	16	Delaware	14	Delaware	15	Delaware	14	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, 1972, and 1982-83.
West Virginia Health Services, Inc., 1987.

Notes: Total figure includes the District of Columbia.
Total number of hospital facilities does not include short-term hospitals (federal).

TABLE 7

TOTAL NUMBER OF HOSPITAL BEDS PER 1,000
1960, 1970, 1980, and 1985

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Total	1657.9	U.S. Total	1615.7	U.S. Total	1364.5	U.S. Total	1359.5	
1	New York	228.6	New York	192.6	New York	127.6	New York	125.9	1
2	California	124.3	California	129.7	California	112.5	California	111.5	2
3	Pennsylvania	116.5	Pennsylvania	111.9	Pennsylvania	85.4	Texas	84.6	3
4	Illinois	108.0	Illinois	96.7	Texas	81.8	Pennsylvania	82.9	4
5	Ohio	81.7	Ohio	80.0	Illinois	72.9	Illinois	71.2	5
6	Michigan	72.7	Texas	75.4	Ohio	63.6	Ohio	62.7	6
7	Massachusetts	69.0	Michigan	67.0	Florida	59.0	Florida	59.6	7
8	Texas	65.9	Massachusetts	62.7	Michigan	49.4	Michigan	48.3	8
9	New Jersey	56.2	New Jersey	51.1	New Jersey	44.0	New Jersey	42.4	9
10	Missouri	39.1	Florida	45.3	Massachusetts	43.0	Massachusetts	41.4	10
11	Minnesota	37.0	Virginia	38.8	Missouri	35.3	Missouri	34.2	11
12	North Carolina	34.3	Indiana	38.2	North Carolina	32.8	Georgia	33.0	12
13	Indiana	33.9	Missouri	37.5	Indiana	32.1	North Carolina	32.5	13
	Virginia	33.9	Wisconsin	35.9	Virginia	31.2	Indiana	31.9	14
15	Wisconsin	33.6	Minnesota	34.4	Georgia	31.1	Tennessee	31.8	15
16	Maryland	31.9	North Carolina	33.4	Tennessee	30.9	Virginia	31.6	16
17	Florida	30.9	Maryland	33.0	Minnesota	30.0	Minnesota	29.3	17
18	Georgia	29.9	Tennessee	32.6	Wisconsin	28.7	Wisconsin	29.0	18
19	Tennessee	29.2	Georgia	32.3	Louisiana	26.6	Louisiana	26.0	19
20	Connecticut	25.9	Alabama	28.9	Alabama	25.2	Alabama	25.9	20
21	Louisiana	24.6	Louisiana	26.3	Maryland	25.1	Maryland	24.9	21
22	Alabama	24.0	Connecticut	24.0	Iowa	20.6	Iowa	20.5	22
23	Kentucky	23.0	Iowa	21.8	Kentucky	18.8	Kentucky	18.8	23
24	Iowa	22.6	Kentucky	21.3	Connecticut	18.2	Kansas	18.5	24
25	Washington	22.5	Kansas	19.2	Kansas	17.7	Connecticut	18.2	25
26	Oklahoma	19.3	South Carolina	19.1	Mississippi	17.2	Oklahoma	17.7	26
27	Kansas	18.5	Washington	18.9	Oklahoma	17.2	Mississippi	17.5	27
	South Carolina	18.5	Oklahoma	17.0	South Carolina	17.0	South Carolina	17.1	28
29	Colorado	17.7	Mississippi	16.9	Washington	15.7	Washington	15.7	29
30	WEST VIRGINIA	16.0	WEST VIRGINIA	16.5	Colorado	15.3	Colorado	15.1	30
31	Mississippi	14.7	Colorado	15.8	WEST VIRGINIA	14.0	Arkansas	13.6	31
32	Arkansas	14.6	Nebraska	12.8	Arkansas	12.9	WEST VIRGINIA	12.9	32
33	Nebraska	14.5	Oregon	12.7	Arizona	11.6	Arizona	12.1	33
34	Oregon	13.4	Arkansas	10.9	Nebraska	11.6	Oregon	11.9	34
35	Rhode Island	9.8	Arizona	9.5	Oregon	11.2	Nebraska	11.8	35
36	Maine	9.0	Maine	9.1	Maine	6.8	Maine	6.6	36
37	Arizona	8.1	Rhode Island	9.1	New Mexico	6.1	New Mexico	6.3	37
38	New Hampshire	7.8	South Dakota	6.5	Rhode Island	6.0	North Dakota	6.0	38
39	South Dakota	7.7	New Hampshire	6.4	North Dakota	5.9	Rhode Island	5.9	39
40	North Dakota	7.4	Hawaii	6.1	South Dakota	5.5	South Dakota	5.7	40
41	Hawaii	6.7	North Dakota	5.9	Montana	5.3	Utah	5.3	41
42	Montana	5.8	New Mexico	5.7	Utah	5.3	Montana	5.2	42
43	New Mexico	5.7	Delaware	5.0	New Hampshire	4.6	New Hampshire	4.7	43
44	Delaware	5.5	Utah	4.9	Delaware	4.2	Hawaii	4.1	44
45	Utah	4.6	Montana	4.6	Hawaii	4.0	Delaware	4.0	45
	Vermont	4.6	Vermont	4.5	Idaho	3.8	Idaho	4.0	
47	Wyoming	3.6	Idaho	3.8	Nevada	3.4	Nevada	3.6	47
48	Idaho	3.5	Wyoming	3.0	Vermont	2.9	Vermont	2.9	47
49	Nevada	1.9	Nevada	2.7	Wyoming	2.5	Wyoming	2.7	49
50	Alaska	1.6	Alaska	1.8	Alaska	1.7	Alaska	1.7	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, 1972, and 1982-83.
West Virginia Health Services, Inc., 1987.

Notes: Total figure includes the District of Columbia.
Total number of hospital facilities does not include short-term hospitals (federal).

TABLE 8

AVERAGE DAILY HOSPITAL ROOM CHARGES
1976, 1980 and 1987

Rank	State	1976	State	1980	State	1987	Rank
	U.S. Total	$83	U.S. Total	$127	U.S. Total	$244	
1	Alaska	$121	Alaska	$189	Alaska	$372	1
2	California	$109	California	$161	California	$327	2
3	New York	$105	New York	$157	Michigan	$296	3
4	Massachusetts	$102	Massachusetts	$151	Pennsylvania	$294	4
	Rhode Island	$102	Michigan	$151	Delaware	$279	5
6	Michigan	$97	New Jersey	$146	Illinois	$279	
7	Connecticut	$93	Illinois	$144	Hawaii	$267	7
8	New Jersey	$92	Ohio	$139	Washington	$266	8
9	Washington	$90	Rhode Island	$138	Oregon	$263	9
10	Illinois	$89	Oregon	$133	Massachusetts	$262	10
	Ohio	$89	Pennsylvania	$132	New York	$262	
	Oregon	$89	Connecticut	$127	Arizona	$259	12
13	Maryland	$88	Hawaii	$127	Vermont	$257	13
	Nevada	$88	Delaware	$125	Ohio	$253	14
	Pennsylvania	$88	Nevada	$125	Rhode Island	$248	15
16	Hawaii	$82	New Hampshire	$125	Connecticut	$247	16
	Vermont	$82	Washington	$125	Utah	$244	17
18	New Hampshire	$81	Colorado	$124	Colorado	$243	18
19	Colorado	$79	Maine	$124	Minnesota	$228	19
	Maine	$79	Maryland	$119	New Mexico	$227	20
21	Florida	$77	Vermont	$116	Nevada	$227	
	New Mexico	$76	New Mexico	$115	Idaho	$223	22
23	Indiana	$75	Montana	$113	Maine	$222	23
	Montana	$75	Utah	$112	Montana	$221	24
25	Idaho	$73	Idaho	$110	Maryland	$219	25
26	Iowa	$72	WEST VIRGINIA	$110	New Hampshire	$219	
	Wisconsin	$72	Florida	$109	New Jersey	$215	27
28	Arizona	$71	Indiana	$107	Kansas	$213	28
	Minnesota	$71	Iowa	$107	Missouri	$209	29
	Missouri	$71	Missouri	$107	Florida	$208	30
	Utah	$71	Arizona	$106	Indiana	$208	
32	Nebraska	$68	Minnesota	$105	Kentucky	$199	32
	Virginia	$68	Kansas	$104	Iowa	$194	33
34	North Dakota	$66	Wisconsin	$104	Alabama	$188	34
35	WEST VIRGINIA	$66	Oklahoma	$101	Louisiana	$188	
36	Wyoming	$65	Virginia	$101	North Dakota	$186	36
37	Kansas	$64	Nebraska	$100	Texas	$184	37
	Kentucky	$64	Wyoming	$98	WEST VIRGINIA	$184	
39	Georgia	$63	Alabama	$96	Virginia	$180	39
	Oklahoma	$63	South Dakota	$96	Wyoming	$179	40
	Tennessee	$63	North Dakota	$93	Oklahoma	$177	41
	Texas	$63	Georgia	$92	Nebraska	$174	42
43	Alabama	$62	Kentucky	$92	South Dakota	$174	
44	Louisiana	$58	Tennessee	$91	Wisconsin	$174	
	South Dakota	$58	Texas	$91	Tennessee	$170	45
46	Arkansas	$56	Louisiana	$89	Georgia	$160	46
47	North Carolina	$53	North Carolina	$87	South Carolina	$156	47
	South Carolina	$53	Arkansas	$86	Arkansas	$154	48
49	Mississippi	$44	South Carolina	$80	North Carolina	$151	49
50	Delaware	N/A	Mississippi	$67	Mississippi	$125	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1981 and 1988, Bureau of the Census.

HIGHWAYS

Direct expenditures for highways spent by state and local governments include the construction and maintenance of highway facilities, bridges, toll roads, city streets, and snow and ice removal costs. Figures for highway policing and traffic control are not covered as they are reported under public safety operational costs.

Table 1 tabulates the spending for highways per capita by state and local governments. The national average on highway spending has increased by 28 percent in the last sixteen years. West Virginia ranked sixth in 1970, fourth in 1980, but dropped to fourteenth in 1986. Highway spending in the State was $263.55 per capita, or 29 percent above the national average of $204.78. In this category, Alaska ranked the highest, spending $905.73 per capita, while California ranked fiftieth, spending $126.89 per capita.

Table 2 reports state and local highway expenditures per $1,000 personal income. The national average has dropped considerably since 1960 when the average was $23.56 to 1986's average of $14.91 per $1,000 personal income. West Virginia's highway expenditures per $1,000 of personal income dropped between 1980 and 1986 from an expenditure of $43.45 to $25.63. The State's rank in this measure also changed from second to seventh.

Highway expenditures as a percentage of the total amount spent by state and local governments is found in Table 3. The national average dropped from 18.2 percent in 1960 to 6.9 percent in 1986. West Virginia's rank in 1960 was fifteenth, rose to third in 1970 and to first in 1980. The increase in rank during this period reflects the construction of the interstate highway system in the State. In 1986, the State's rank dropped to eighth with 10.5 percent of its funds committed to highways.

Total highway and street mileage is listed in Table 4. The total mileage includes roads in federal and state parks, forests, and reservations. West Virginia's rank in this measure ranges between thirty-eighth and thirty-ninth for all periods. In 1985, West Virginia had a little over thirty-five thousand total highway miles.

Table 5 provides motor vehicle registration totals by state. The figures include private, commercial and publicly owned (federal, state, county, and municipal) vehicles. The registrations exclude transfers and re-registrations of vehicles, diplomatic corps vehicles, and vehicles owned by the military services. The number of motor vehicle registrations nationwide increased by 10.4 percent from 1980 to 1986. West Virginia's registration for the same period dropped by 11.8 percent. The State ranked thirty-fifth, with one million two hundred thirty-nine thousand registered vehicles.

Table 6 tabulates the number of deaths from motor vehicle accidents per 100,000 population. The total number of deaths from motor vehicle accidents in the U.S. in 1985 was 43,795. This figure is some 9,681 fewer deaths than in 1980. West Virginia's death rate in 1985 was 420, some 163 fewer deaths than in 1980.

TABLE 1

PER CAPITA STATE AND LOCAL HIGHWAY EXPENDITURES
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$52.38	U.S. Avg.	$80.84	U.S. Avg.	$147.07	U.S. Avg.	$204.78	
1	Wyoming	$140.06	Alaska	$254.28	Alaska	$558.94	Alaska	$905.73	1
2	North Dakota	$107.89	Wyoming	$224.25	Wyoming	$381.42	Wyoming	$701.67	2
3	Vermont	$105.37	Montana	$169.23	Montana	$310.62	Montana	$415.74	3
4	South Dakota	$99.56	Vermont	$164.11	WEST VIRGINIA	$308.48	South Dakota	$372.22	4
5	Montana	$88.79	South Dakota	$145.43	North Dakota	$302.88	North Dakota	$354.32	5
6	New Hampshire	$86.37	WEST VIRGINIA	$139.31	South Dakota	$298.08	Iowa	$315.54	6
7	Iowa	$83.85	North Dakota	$128.37	Kentucky	$268.14	Kansas	$314.72	7
8	Nevada	$83.68	Nevada	$128.22	Kansas	$241.23	Minnesota	$311.37	8
9	Kansas	$73.32	Iowa	$119.41	Iowa	$239.54	Nebraska	$304.01	9
10	Nebraska	$72.07	Idaho	$117.84	Nevada	$235.68	Vermont	$297.80	10
11	Oregon	$70.11	Utah	$112.15	Nebraska	$229.12	New Mexico	$289.73	11
12	Idaho	$69.01	Minnesota	$111.74	Minnesota	$218.87	Nevada	$289.30	12
13	Maine	$68.69	Hawaii	$108.07	Vermont	$196.18	Arizona	$275.07	13
14	Florida	$67.21	New Hampshire	$107.63	Mississippi	$195.48	WEST VIRGINIA	$263.55	14
15	Minnesota	$65.73	New Mexico	$106.44	Wisconsin	$194.99	Delaware	$257.99	15
16	Louisiana	$65.60	Maine	$103.29	New Mexico	$194.36	Idaho	$254.60	16
17	Wisconsin	$65.34	Washington	$101.53	Washington	$194.19	Utah	$248.66	17
18	Delaware	$62.58	Nebraska	$100.55	New Hampshire	$191.89	Colorado	$246.06	18
19	New Mexico	$58.66	Delaware	$98.70	Utah	$191.15	Maine	$241.39	19
20	Texas	$58.30	Kansas	$95.95	Louisiana	$188.77	Louisiana	$241.04	20
21	Utah	$58.15	Kentucky	$95.46	Maine	$187.57	Maryland	$240.17	21
22	Connecticut	$57.03	Wisconsin	$94.34	Idaho	$180.73	Wisconsin	$237.61	22
23	Ohio	$56.58	Louisiana	$94.10	Oregon	$179.72	Virginia	$233.96	23
24	Colorado	$56.03	Mississippi	$92.97	Arkansas	$177.84	New Jersey	$233.66	24
25	Mississippi	$55.41	Oregon	$91.57	Virginia	$174.89	New Hampshire	$233.18	25
26	New York	$54.69	Oklahoma	$88.07	Delaware	$166.85	Texas	$229.60	26
27	Kentucky	$54.15	Pennsylvania	$86.61	Colorado	$164.12	Mississippi	$226.15	27
28	Arizona	$53.95	Virginia	$85.69	Maryland	$161.15	Kentucky	$220.19	28
29	Tennessee	$53.48	Arizona	$83.19	Illinois	$161.05	Connecticut	$218.24	29
30	Illinois	$52.92	New Jersey	$81.36	Texas	$160.62	Washington	$217.26	30
31	Michigan	$52.23	California	$81.12	Arizona	$157.10	Arkansas	$216.88	31
32	Washington	$51.68	Missouri	$80.68	Oklahoma	$150.20	Oklahoma	$212.46	32
33	Alabama	$51.57	Texas	$79.48	Georgia	$150.17	Illinois	$208.01	33
34	WEST VIRGINIA	$51.43	Alabama	$78.57	Tennessee	$149.98	Oregon	$204.43	34
35	Oklahoma	$48.52	Ohio	$78.15	Missouri	$142.65	Alabama	$203.68	35
36	Rhode Island	$47.84	Connecticut	$78.00	Michigan	$136.46	New Yrok	$201.95	36
37	Massachusetts	$47.55	Tennessee	$77.61	Hawaii	$135.01	Missouri	$201.84	37
38	Indiana	$46.87	Colorado	$75.67	Alabama	$133.19	Pennsylvania	$198.03	38
39	Maryland	$46.76	Arkansas	$72.88	Indiana	$126.17	Georgia	$192.98	39
40	Arkansas	$46.64	Massachusetts	$72.30	Florida	$123.36	Tennessee	$192.89	40
41	California	$44.78	New York	$70.21	New York	$123.02	Ohio	$177.20	41
42	Georgia	$41.48	Maryland	$69.54	North Carolina	$119.57	Rhode Island	$176.37	42
43	South Carolina	$41.10	North Carolina	$64.10	Connecticut	$114.78	Michigan	$172.92	43
44	Missouri	$41.05	Illinois	$64.05	Ohio	$109.35	Florida	$162.63	44
45	Hawaii	$40.50	Michigan	$63.11	Massachusetts	$107.52	Indiana	$162.05	45
46	Virginia	$39.67	Rhode Island	$62.84	New Jersey	$105.96	North Carolina	$155.00	46
47	Pennsylvania	$39.43	Georgia	$62.51	California	$97.67	Massachusetts	$142.07	47
48	North Carolina	$34.14	Indiana	$62.15	Pennsylvania	$95.12	Hawaii	$138.82	48
49	New Jersey	$33.22	Florida	$58.09	South Carolina	$91.89	South Carolina	$130.92	49
50	Alaska	$32.46	South Carolina	$54.84	Rhode Island	$88.61	California	$126.89	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 2

STATE AND LOCAL HIGHWAY EXPENDITURES
PER $1,000 PERSONAL INCOME
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$23.56	U.S. Avg.	$22.06	U.S. Avg.	$17.25	U.S. Avg.	$14.91	
1	North Dakota	$61.97	Wyoming	$69.47	Alaska	$49.08	Wyoming	$52.83	1
2	Wyoming	$60.01	Alaska	$61.06	WEST VIRGINIA	$43.45	Alaska	$51.04	2
3	Vermont	$56.68	Montana	$54.10	Montana	$40.47	Montana	$37.55	3
4	South Dakota	$54.05	WEST VIRGINIA	$51.31	Wyoming	$40.24	South Dakota	$33.35	4
5	Mississippi	$47.24	Vermont	$51.17	South Dakota	$40.04	North Dakota	$29.14	5
6	Montana	$44.00	South Dakota	$48.56	Kentucky	$37.66	New Mexico	$27.07	6
7	Idaho	$42.82	North Dakota	$42.81	North Dakota	$36.57	WEST VIRGINIA	$25.63	7
8	Iowa	$41.86	Idaho	$39.63	Mississippi	$32.84	Vermont	$24.86	8
9	New Hampshire	$41.64	Mississippi	$39.38	Utah	$28.39	Iowa	$24.77	9
10	Louisiana	$40.90	Utah	$37.93	Vermont	$27.75	Mississippi	$24.73	10
11	Maine	$36.15	New Mexico	$37.56	Iowa	$27.41	Utah	$23.99	11
12	Kansas	$35.45	Maine	$34.36	Maine	$27.33	Kansas	$22.95	12
13	Alabama	$35.27	Iowa	$34.17	New Mexico	$26.93	Idaho	$22.86	13
14	Kentucky	$35.09	Kentucky	$33.39	Arkansas	$26.83	Nebraska	$22.78	14
15	Arkansas	$34.78	Louisiana	$32.92	Nebraska	$26.32	Arizona	$22.38	15
16	Tennessee	$34.61	New Hampshire	$31.89	Kansas	$26.06	Minnesota	$22.21	16
17	Nebraska	$34.11	Minnesota	$31.61	Louisiana	$26.05	Louisiana	$21.48	17
18	New Mexico	$32.48	Nevada	$30.76	Nevada	$25.50	Arkansas	$20.82	18
19	Minnesota	$32.00	Alabama	$29.68	Idaho	$24.90	Nevada	$20.55	19
20	Oregon	$31.04	Oklahoma	$28.80	Minnesota	$24.79	Maine	$20.48	20
21	WEST VIRGINIA	$30.72	Nebraska	$28.52	New Hampshire	$23.86	Kentucky	$20.35	21
22	Utah	$30.45	Arkansas	$28.24	Wisconsin	$22.91	Alabama	$19.24	22
23	Texas	$30.30	Tennessee	$27.21	Tennessee	$21.41	Delaware	$18.40	23
24	Wisconsin	$30.10	Hawaii	$27.19	Washington	$21.36	Wisconsin	$18.10	24
25	Nevada	$29.42	Wisconsin	$27.10	Georgia	$21.02	Oklahoma	$17.39	25
_	South Carolina	$29.42	Kansas	$26.65	Oregon	$20.95	Texas	$17.35	26
27	Florida	$28.53	Washington	$26.43	Virginia	$20.95	Tennessee	$17.30	27
28	Arizona	$26.83	Oregon	$26.37	Arizona	$20.69	Colorado	$16.80	28
29	Oklahoma	$26.25	Arizona	$25.82	Alabama	$19.75	Virginia	$16.32	29
30	Georgia	$25.80	Virginia	$25.79	Texas	$19.44	Oregon	$16.26	30
31	Ohio	$24.19	Texas	$24.40	Colorado	$18.75	New Hampshire	$16.04	31
32	Colorado	$24.15	Delaware	$24.39	Oklahoma	$18.46	Washington	$15.85	32
33	Michigan	$22.49	Pennsylvania	$23.65	Delaware	$18.29	Georgia	$15.71	33
34	Washington	$22.30	Missouri	$23.46	Maryland	$17.55	Maryland	$15.38	34
35	North Carolina	$21.69	Colorado	$22.06	Missouri	$17.47	Missouri	$15.35	35
36	Indiana	$21.49	North Carolina	$21.67	North Carolina	$16.97	Pennsylvania	$14.78	36
37	Rhode Island	$21.47	Ohio	$20.73	Illinois	$16.71	Illinois	$14.14	37
	Virginia	$21.47	South Carolina	$20.24	Florida	$15.87	New Jersey	$13.68	38
39	Delaware	$20.77	Georgia	$20.12	Hawaii	$15.59	North Carolina	$13.50	39
40	Illinois	$20.52	California	$19.40	Indiana	$14.97	Ohio	$13.41	40
41	Connecticut	$19.92	New Jersey	$19.24	Michigan	$14.59	Indiana	$13.03	41
42	New York	$19.61	Massachusetts	$18.10	South Carolina	$13.85	Michigan	$12.79	42
43	Maryland	$19.53	Maryland	$17.78	New York	$13.44	Rhode Island	$12.77	43
44	Massachusetts	$18.88	Florida	$17.61	Ohio	$12.63	New York	$12.57	44
45	Missouri	$18.67	Connecticut	$17.16	Massachusetts	$12.92	South Carolina	$12.40	45
46	Hawaii	$17.81	Indiana	$17.11	Connecticut	$11.31	Florida	$12.16	46
47	Pennsylvania	$17.40	Rhode Island	$16.97	Pennsylvania	$11.24	Connecticut	$12.12	47
48	California	$16.34	Michigan	$15.99	New Jersey	$10.92	Hawaii	$10.13	48
49	New Jersey	$12.47	New York	$15.73	Rhode Island	$10.61	Massachusetts	$8.69	49
50	Alaska	$11.87	Illinois	$15.03	California	$10.14	California	$8.08	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 3

HIGHWAY EXPENDITURES AS PERCENT OF TOTAL STATE AND LOCAL SPENDING
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	18.2%	U.S. Avg.	12.5%	U.S. Avg.	7.7%	U.S. Avg.	6.9%	
1	South Dakota	33.0%	Wyoming	25.6%	WEST VIRGINIA	17.4%	South Dakota	15.2%	1
2	Vermont	32.2%	Montana	25.1%	South Dakota	16.5%	Wyoming	14.1%	2
3	New Hampshire	31.4%	WEST VIRGINIA	25.0%	Kentucky	16.1%	Montana	13.3%	3
4	Wyoming	30.8%	South Dakota	22.8%	Montana	15.6%	North Dakota	12.0%	4
5	North Dakota	29.2%	Vermont	22.7%	North Dakota	15.2%	Kansas	11.7%	5
6	Iowa	28.5%	New Hampshire	20.0%	Wyoming	14.6%	Iowa	11.5%	6
7	Kentucky	27.3%	Idaho	19.9%	Kansas	13.4%	Idaho	11.4%	7
8	Idaho	27.0%	North Dakota	19.5%	Arkansas	13.3%	WEST VIRGINIA	10.5%	8
9	Maine	26.8%	Alaska	18.8%	Mississippi	12.9%	Arkansas	10.4%	9
	Nebraska	26.8%	Maine	18.7%	Iowa	12.6%	New Hampshire	10.4%	
11	Montana	26.6%	Iowa	18.5%	New Hampshire	12.5%	Vermont	10.4%	
12	Kansas	25.2%	Kentucky	17.9%	Idaho	11.7%	Mississippi	10.2%	12
13	Tennessee	24.6%	Mississippi	17.8%	Maine	11.6%	Kentucky	10.0%	13
14	Mississippi	24.0%	Utah	17.6%	Virginia	10.9%	New Mexico	9.8%	14
15	Alabama	23.7%	Nebraska	17.5%	Louisiana	10.8%	Virginia	9.6%	15
	Texas	23.7%	Louisiana	16.7%	Vermont	10.8%	Maine	9.4%	16
	WEST VIRGINIA	23.7%	Virginia	16.4%	New Mexico	10.6%	Missouri	9.3%	17
18	Arkansas	23.6%	New Mexico	15.9%	Utah	10.6%	Nevada	9.1%	18
19	Wisconsin	22.5%	Kansas	15.8%	Minnesota	10.3%	Arizona	8.9%	19
20	South Carolina	22.4%	Texas	15.8%	Nevada	10.3%	Minnesota	8.9%	
21	Ohio	20.7%	Alabama	15.6%	Texas	10.1%	Nebraska	8.9%	
22	Oregon	20.4%	Tennessee	15.6%	Wisconsin	9.8%	Texas	8.7%	22
23	Louisiana	20.3%	Arkansas	15.4%	Missouri	9.7%	Louisiana	8.6%	23
24	Florida	20.0%	Oklahoma	15.3%	Nebraska	9.7%	Alaska	8.5%	24
	Minnesota	20.0%	Minnesota	15.3%	Oklahoma	9.3%	Delaware	8.3%	25
26	Nevada	19.9%	Nevada	15.1%	Georgia	9.2%	Maryland	8.3%	
27	New Mexico	19.0%	Missouri	14.6%	Indiana	8.9%	Alabama	8.1%	27
	Utah	19.0%	Ohio	14.6%	Illinois	8.8%	Colorado	8.1%	
29	Georgia	18.7%	Pennsylvania	14.5%	Colorado	8.6%	Oregon	8.1%	
	Rhode Island	18.7%	North Carolina	13.8%	Alabama	8.4%	Wisconsin	7.9%	30
31	Delaware	18.6%	Wisconsin	13.6%	Tennessee	8.4%	Illinois	7.7%	31
	Virginia	18.6%	New Jersey	13.5%	Delaware	8.3%	Pennsylvania	7.6%	32
33	Illinois	18.5%	Washington	13.4%	Alaska	8.2%	Connecticut	7.5%	33
34	Connecticut	18.3%	Arizona	13.2%	Florida	8.2%	Utah	7.5%	
	Indiana	18.3%	Oregon	13.2%	Oregon	8.1%	New Jersey	7.4%	35
36	Missouri	17.7%	Delaware	12.5%	Arizona	8.0%	Georgia	7.3%	36
37	Arizona	17.5%	Indiana	12.0%	North Carolina	7.9%	Tennessee	7.3%	
	North Carolina	17.5%	South Carolina	12.0%	Maryland	7.8%	Florida	6.5%	38
39	Maryland	17.4%	Colorado	11.8%	Washington	7.6%	Ohio	6.5%	
40	Michigan	17.3%	Connecticut	11.5%	Connecticut	6.6%	Oklahoma	6.5%	
41	Oklahoma	17.2%	Georgia	11.4%	Ohio	6.3%	North Carolina	6.3%	41
42	Colorado	16.3%	Florida	11.0%	Hawaii	6.2%	Washington	6.2%	42
43	Massachusetts	16.0%	Illinois	10.6%	Michigan	6.1%	Rhode Island	5.9%	43
44	Washington	15.5%	Massachusetts	10.5%	South Carolina	6.1%	Indiana	5.6%	44
45	Pennsylvania	15.4%	Hawaii	10.4%	New Jersey	5.6%	Michigan	5.5%	45
46	New York	14.6%	Maryland	10.4%	Pennsylvania	5.4%	South Carolina	5.1%	46
47	New Jersey	12.9%	Rhode Island	10.2%	Massachusetts	4.9%	New York	4.7%	47
48	California	11.8%	California	9.6%	New York	4.7%	Hawaii	4.5%	48
49	Hawaii	11.0%	Michigan	9.3%	Rhode Island	4.5%	Massachusetts	4.3%	49
50	Alaska	9.4%	New York	7.6%	California	4.3%	California	3.6%	50

Source: GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1960, 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 4

TOTAL HIGHWAY MILEAGE
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Total	3545.7	U.S. Total	3730.1	U.S. Total	3955.4	U.S. Total	3861.9	
1	Texas	230.8	Texas	245.5	Texas(1)	267.5	Texas	282.3	1
2	California	147.4	California	164.1	California(1)	180.7	California	174.1	2
3	Kansas	133.1	Kansas	134.0	Kansas(1)	138.5	Illinois	134.7	3
4	Minnesota	124.2	Illinois	129.9	Illinois(1)	136.7	Kansas	132.4	4
5	Illinois	123.4	Minnesota	127.7	Minnesota(1)	135.1	Minnesota	132.0	5
6	Missouri	112.7	Missouri	115.3	Oregon	129.5	Missouri	119.2	6
7	Iowa	111.7	Pennsylvania	115.2	Missouri(1)	118.5	Michigan	117.6	7
8	Michigan	110.6	Michigan	114.7	Pennsylvania	117.6	Pennsylvania	115.7	8
9	Pennsylvania	109.3	Iowa	112.1	Michigan	117.2	Ohio	113.0	9
10	New York	106.5	Ohio	108.9	Iowa	112.0	Iowa	112.5	10
11	Ohio	104.5	Oklahoma	107.9	Ohio(1)	111.1	Oklahoma	110.7	11
12	Oklahoma	103.4	North Dakota	106.9	Oklahoma	109.8	New York	110.0	12
13	Nebraska	102.8	New York	105.8	New York	104.9	Wisconsin	108.5	13
14	Indiana	102.2	Wisconsin	103.2	Wisconsin	107.0	Georgia	106.3	14
15	North Dakota	100.2	Nebraska	100.4	North Dakota	106.5	Florida	99.1	15
16	Wisconsin	97.9	Georgia	100.0	Georgia(1)	104.5	Oregon	94.0	16
17	Georgia	96.9	Oregon	95.1	Florida(1)	97.1	North Carolina	93.2	17
18	South Dakota	92.3	Indiana	91.0	Nebraska	96.4	Nebraska	92.1	18
19	North Carolina	80.7	Florida	89.5	North Carolina	93.0	Indiana	91.4	19
20	Colorado	78.6	North Carolina	86.0	Indiana(1)	91.5	Alabama	87.8	20
21	Arkansas	78.5	South Dakota	84.2	Washington(1)	88.8	North Dakota	86.0	21
22	Tennessee	75.2	Colorado	82.3	Alabama(1)	87.3	Tennessee	83.8	22
23	Montana	75.1	Alabama	78.9	Tennessee	83.8	Washington	81.1	23
24	Alabama	73.3	Arkansas	78.9	South Dakota	83.1	Arkansas	77.0	24
25	Oregon	72.5	Tennessee	78.7	Colorado(1)	82.5	Arizona	76.9	25
26	Kentucky	69.5	Montana	78.3	Arkansas(1)	75.4	Colorado	76.0	26
27	Florida	69.2	Washington	75.1	New Mexico(1)	75.3	South Dakota	73.3	27
28	Mississippi	63.8	Kentucky	69.1	Arizona	75.2	Mississippi	71.7	28
29	New Mexico	62.5	New Mexico	67.3	Montana	71.7	Montana	71.5	29
30	Washington	60.5	Mississippi	66.8	Mississippi(1)	70.0	Kentucky	69.5	30
31	Wyoming	58.1	Virginia	61.1	Kentucky	69.3	Idaho	69.2	31
32	Virginia	56.6	South Carolina	59.8	Idaho	67.5	Virginia	65.5	32
33	South Carolina	56.4	Idaho	56.0	Virginia	66.1	South Carolina	63.2	33
34	Louisiana	48.4	Louisiana	52.8	South Carolina(1	62.5	Louisiana	58.2	34
35	Nevada	44.5	Nevada	49.7	Louisiana	56.0	New Mexico	53.6	35
36	Idaho	42.2	Arizona	42.7	Utah	49.7	Utah	48.6	36
37	Arizona	37.1	Wyoming	40.6	Nevada	43.4	Nevada	43.8	37
38	WEST VIRGINIA	36.1	Utah	40.4	WEST VIRGINIA(1)	37.4	Wyoming	38.2	38
39	Utah	34.5	WEST VIRGINIA	35.5	Wyoming	36.2	WEST VIRGINIA	35.1	39
40	New Jersey	31.1	New Jersey	32.1	Massachusetts(1)	33.8	New Jersey	33.9	40
41	Massachusetts	26.3	Massachusetts	29.1	New Jersey	33.8	Massachusetts	33.8	41
42	Maryland	22.3	Maryland	26.3	Maryland(1)	29.1	Maryland	27.6	42
43	Maine	20.8	Maine	21.4	Maine	21.9	Maine	22.0	43
44	Connecticut	16.7	Connecticut	18.4	Connecticut(1)	19.4	Connecticut	19.6	44
45	New Hampshire	14.0	New Hampshire	14.9	New Hampshire	14.3	New Hampshire	14.5	45
46	Vermont	13.7	Vermont	14.5	Vermont(1)	14.1	Vermont	14.0	46
47	Alaska	4.6	Alaska	7.3	Alaska(1)	10.0	Alaska	11.6	47
	Delaware	4.6	Rhode Island	5.3	Rhode Island(1)	6.5	Rhode Island	6.0	48
49	Rhode Island	4.2	Delaware	4.9	Delaware	5.2	Delaware	5.3	49
50	Hawaii	3.1	Hawaii	3.5	Hawaii	4.5	Hawaii	3.9	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962,1972.
"HIGHWAY STATISTICS",1980, 1985, U.S. Department of Transportation.

Note: Total includes the District of Columbia.

(1) Incomplete 1980 Highway Performance data submitted for these states. Areawide data used for totals and available data from previous submittals included and factored to 1980 levels.

TABLE 5

MOTOR VEHICLE REGISTRATION, BY STATE
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Total*	73,769	U.S. Total*	110,989	U.S. Total*	159,941	U.S. Total*	176,532	
1	California	7,799	California	12,468	California	17,565	California	19,703	1
2	New York	5,067	Texas	6,837	Texas	10,536	Texas	12,612	2
3	Texas	4,457	New York	6,804	Illinois	9,035	Florida	10,349	3
4	Pennsylvania	4,287	Ohio	6,104	New York	8,410	New York	9,373	4
5	Ohio	4,087	Pennsylvania	5,933	Florida	8,151	Ohio	8,331	5
6	Illinois	3,776	Illinois	5,354	Ohio	7,782	Illinois	7,785	6
7	Michigan	3,306	Michigan	4,729	Pennsylvania	7,128	Pennsylvania	7,340	7
8	New Jersey	2,401	Florida	4,219	Michigan	6,818	Michigan	7,167	8
9	Florida	2,367	New Jersey	3,633	New Jersey	4,947	New Jersey	4,926	9
10	Indiana	2,046	Indiana	2,886	North Carolina	4,781	Georgia	4,686	10
11	Massachusetts	1,803	North Carolina	2,878	Indiana	4,096	North Carolina	4,536	11
12	North Carolina	1,720	Georgia	2,636	Georgia	3,973	Virginia	4,463	12
13	Missouri	1,623	Massachusetts	2,619	Massachusetts	3,913	Indiana	4,090	13
14	Wisconsin	1,600	Missouri	2,457	Virginia	3,663	Tennessee	3,914	14
15	Minnesota	1,592	Virginia	2,295	Minnesota	3,658	Washington	3,767	15
16	Georgia	1,512	Minnesota	2,278	Missouri	3,432	Massachusetts	3,737	16
17	Virginia	1,426	Wisconsin	2,272	Washington	3,410	Missouri	3,593	17
18	Washington	1,377	Washington	2,164	Wisconsin	3,405	Minnesota	3,548	18
19	Iowa	1,325	Tennessee	2,095	Tennessee	3,190	Alabama	3,461	19
20	Tennessee	1,307	Alabama	2,008	Alabama	3,033	Maryland	3,359	20
21	Alabama	1,282	Iowa	1,850	Maryland	2,955	Wisconsin	3,281	21
22	Kentucky	1,198	Maryland	1,822	Oklahoma	2,889	Louisiana	3,054	22
23	Oklahoma	1,184	Kentucky	1,788	Louisiana	2,874	Oklahoma	2,915	23
24	Louisiana	1,177	Louisiana	1,772	Kentucky	2,723	Colorado	2,769	24
25	Kansas	1,163	Oklahoma	1,768	Iowa	2,599	Iowa	2,764	25
26	Maryland	1,155	Connecticut	1,762	Colorado	2,514	Kentucky	2,641	26
27	Connecticut	1,107	Kansas	1,601	Kansas	2,460	Connecticut	2,537	27
28	Colorado	924	Colorado	1,487	Connecticut	2,318	Arizona	2,353	28
29	Oregon	919	Oregon	1,427	Oregon	2,239	South Carolina	2,276	29
30	South Carolina	879	South Carolina	1,377	South Carolina	2,055	Oregon	2,223	30
31	Nebraska	734	Mississippi	1,133	Arizona	1,948	Kansas	2,171	31
32	Mississippi	723	Arizona	1,127	Arkansas	1,587	Mississippi	1,810	32
33	Arkansas	708	Arkansas	1,065	Mississippi	1,573	Arkansas	1,435	33
34	Arizona	624	Nebraska	1,007	WEST VIRGINIA	1,405	Nebraska	1,262	34
35	WEST VIRGINIA	601	WEST VIRGINIA	899	Nebraska	1,306	WEST VIRGINIA	1,239	35
36	New Mexico	426	New Mexico	659	New Mexico	1,110	New Mexico	1,155	36
37	Utah	417	Utah	654	Utah	1,076	Utah	1,105	37
38	Montana	381	Maine	525	Montana	1,024	New Hampshire	1,019	38
39	Idaho	375	Montana	509	Idaho	868	Idaho	862	39
40	Maine	374	Idaho	500	Maine	769	Maine	861	40
41	South Dakota	354	Rhode Island	499	New Hampshire	691	Nevada	696	41
42	North Dakota	345	North Dakota	439	North Dakota	660	South Dakota	677	42
43	Rhode Island	341	South Dakota	438	South Dakota	641	Hawaii	672	43
44	New Hampshire	256	Hawaii	416	Rhode Island	617	North Dakota	649	44
45	Hawaii	231	Nevada	373	Nevada	603	Montana	628	45
46	Wyoming	207	New Hampshire	371	Hawaii	587	Rhode Island	615	46
47	Delaware	192	Delaware	317	Wyoming	512	Wyoming	507	47
48	Nevada	175	Wyoming	257	Delaware	417	Delaware	485	48
49	Vermont	152	Vermont	236	Vermont	362	Vermont	418	49
50	Alaska	81	Alaska	147	Alaska	263	Alaska	348	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, 1981 and 1988, U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.
THE BOOK OF THE STATES, 1972-73, Council of State Governments, Lexington, Kentucky.

* Total includes the District of Columbia.
Note: Motor vehicle registration includes automobiles, trucks, buses and motorcycles.

TABLE 6

DEATH FROM MOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENTS PER 100,000 POPULATION, BY STATE 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980		1985	Rank
	U.S. Total*	37,910	U.S. Total*	54,705	U.S. Total*	53,476	U.S. Total*	43,795	
1	California	3,712	California	5,114	California	5,860	California	4,961	1
2	Texas	2,515	Texas	3,570	Texas	4,378	Texas	3,678	2
3	New York	2,269	New York	3,117	Florida	2,967	Florida	2,830	3
4	Ohio	1,898	Ohio	2,488	New York	2,717	New York	2,003	4
5	Pennsylvania	1,794	Pennsylvania	2,349	Pennsylvania	2,162	Pennsylvania	1,771	5
6	Illinois	1,660	Illinois	2,267	Illinois	1,985	Ohio	1,640	6
7	Michigan	1,480	Florida	2,181	Ohio	1,976	Michigan	1,543	7
8	North Carolina	1,261	Michigan	2,172	Michigan	1,817	Illinois	1,535	8
9	Florida	1,177	Georgia	1,825	North Carolina	1,588	North Carolina	1,481	9
10	Indiana	1,168	North Carolina	1,801	Georgia	1,558	Georgia	1,361	10
11	Georgia	1,031	Indiana	1,587	Tennessee	1,280	Tennessee	1,101	11
12	Missouri	1,014	Tennessee	1,525	Louisiana	1,261	Virginia	977	12
13	Virginia	875	Missouri	1,479	Missouri	1,239	Indiana	974	13
14	Tennessee	872	Alabama	1,297	Indiana	1,213	New Jersey	959	14
15	Alabama	870	New Jersey	1,289	New Jersey	1,130	South Carolina	952	15
16	Wisconsin	841	Virginia	1,251	Virginia	1,110	Louisiana	931	16
17	Louisiana	810	Louisiana	1,194	Alabama	1,054	Missouri	931	
18	New Jersey	784	Wisconsin	1,109	Washington	1,048	Arizona	893	18
19	Kentucky	764	Kentucky	1,081	Wisconsin	1,009	Alabama	881	19
20	Iowa	716	South Carolina	1,070	Oklahoma	1,006	Wisconsin	744	20
21	Minnesota	688	Minnesota	1,028	Arizona	983	Washington	742	21
22	South Carolina	673	Mississippi	947	Massachusetts	933	Massachusetts	740	22
23	Oklahoma	630	Iowa	946	Minnesota	900	Oklahoma	739	23
24	Kansas	598	Massachusetts	918	South Carolina	895	Maryland	727	24
25	Mississippi	597	Washington	902	Kentucky	865	Kentucky	712	25
26	Massachusetts	593	Maryland	809	Maryland	822	Mississippi	662	26
27	Washington	576	Oklahoma	787	Mississippi	796	Minnesota	609	27
28	Maryland	525	Arizona	782	Colorado	783	Colorado	578	28
29	Arizona	518	Oregon	739	Oregon	698	Oregon	559	29
30	Oregon	506	Colorado	697	Iowa	662	Arkansas	535	30
31	New Mexico	482	Kansas	684	New Mexico	617	New Mexico	535	
32	Arkansas	416	Arkansas	595	Kansas	615	Kansas	486	32
33	WEST VIRGINIA	412	New Mexico	568	Arkansas	607	Iowa	474	33
34	Colorado	408	WEST VIRGINIA	561	Connecticut	584	Connecticut	448	34
35	Nebraska	343	Connecticut	448	WEST VIRGINIA	583	WEST VIRGINIA	420	35
36	Montana	255	Nebraska	435	Nebraska	406	Utah	303	36
37	Connecticut	252	Utah	354	Nevada	388	Nevada	258	37
38	Idaho	232	Montana	340	Utah	370	Idaho	255	38
39	South Dakota	227	Idaho	320	Idaho	345	Nebraska	237	39
40	Utah	224	Maine	288	Montana	339	Montana	223	40
41	Nevada	200	Nevada	278	Maine	264	Maine	206	41
42	North Dakota	175	South Dakota	240	Wyoming	246	New Hampshire	188	42
43	Wyoming	173	Wyoming	210	South Dakota	238	Wyoming	152	43
44	Maine	144	North Dakota	194	Hawaii	195	South Dakota	130	44
45	New Hampshire	120	New Hampshire	182	New Hampshire	192	Alaska	127	45
46	Vermont	92	Hawaii	163	North Dakota	184	Hawaii	126	46
47	Delaware	90	Delaware	158	Delaware	164	Vermont	115	47
	Rhode Island	90	Rhode Island	147	Rhode Island	142	Rhode Island	109	48
49	Hawaii	89	Vermont	116	Vermont	131	Delaware	104	49
50	Alaska	35	Alaska	107	Alaska	91	North Dakota	90	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, 1979, and 1984.
NATIONAL HIGHWAY TRAFFIC SAFETY ADMINISTRATION, Department of Transportation, 1986.

* Total includes the District of Columbia.

PUBLIC SAFETY

Table 1 tabulates state and local expenditures per capita for police protection. This figure includes payments for police patrols, crime prevention, detention and custody of persons awaiting trial, and traffic safety. The U.S. average spent for public safety in 1986 was $94.10. In 1986, West Virginia ranked fiftieth, spending $42.34 for police protection, some $52 less than the national average.

State and local spending for police per $1,000 personal income is found in Table 2. West Virginia's rank in 1980 and 1986 was fiftieth. The State's spending on police protection per $1,000 personal income in 1986 was $4.12, below the national average of $6.85.

Table 3 provides a list of police expenditures as a percentage of state and local spending. The U.S. average spent on public safety in 1986 was 3.2 percent. In 1986, West Virginia ranked fiftieth, with only 1.7 percent of its funds committed to public safety.

The following three tables disclose the crime rate per 100,000 population. Table 4 provides the total crime rate per 100,000 inhabitants. Total crime rate includes property and violent crimes reported to the police and then forwarded to the FBI.

The crime rate across the nation dropped between 1980 and 1986 from 5,900.0 in 1980 to 5,480.0 total crime rate per 10,000 population in 1986. West Virginia has maintained the lowest crime rate in the nation for the last thirteen years. The State had a crime rate of only 2,317.0 crimes for every 100,000 inhabitants.

Table 5 lists the property crime rate per 100,000 population. Property crimes include offenses of burglary, larceny-theft, and motor vehicle thefts. Data is not included for arson. The national property crime rate declined between 1980 and 1986. As in the previous table, West Virginia also had the lowest property crime rate in the country. The neighboring states of Kentucky and Pennsylvania also have relatively low crime rates.

Violent crime rates per 100,000 population is tabulated in Table 6. Violent crimes are offenses of murder, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault. As in the past two tables, the violent crime rate also declined. In 1980, the national violent crime rate was 581.1 per 100,000 inhabitants and in 1986, it dropped to 617.3 violent crimes per 100,000 population. West Virginia's rank in 1986 was forty-fourth, with 164.5 violent crimes per 100,000 inhabitants.

Table 7 shows the number of inmates per 100,000 population in state correctional facilities. The number of prisoners between 1980 and 1986 has increased steadily by 82 percent. West Virginia's rank in this measure remained at forty-seventh for 1980 and 1986.

TABLE 1

PER CAPITA STATE AND LOCAL
EXPENDITURES FOR POLICE PROTECTION
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$10.32	U.S. Avg.	$22.11	U.S. Avg.	$59.57	U.S. Avg.	$94.10	
1	New York	$16.63	Nevada	$42.92	Alaska	$139.62	Alaska	$198.73	1
2	Nevada	$15.97	New York	$41.42	New York	$86.79	New York	$145.37	2
3	California	$14.85	California	$31.99	Arizona	$78.70	Nevada	$133.72	3
4	New Jersey	$14.44	Maryland	$28.70	Nevada	$77.45	California	$130.30	4
5	Hawaii	$14.17	Hawaii	$27.99	California	$77.07	Wyoming	$128.89	5
6	Massachusetts	$12.83	New Jersey	$27.82	Wyoming	$74.23	New Jersey	$116.23	6
7	Maryland	$12.26	Illinois	$26.77	Illinois	$73.64	Arizona	$114.82	7
8	Illinois	$12.05	Arizona	$24.89	Michigan	$73.60	Florida	$110.77	8
9	Connecticut	$11.77	Massachusetts	$23.94	New Jersey	$72.51	Colorado	$107.89	9
10	Florida	$11.48	Connecticut	$23.30	Florida	$68.10	Maryland	$103.98	10
11	Michigan	$11.29	Alaska	$22.34	Maryland	$67.67	Illinois	$103.56	11
12	Colorado	$10.86	Michigan	$21.72	Massachusetts	$67.40	Michigan	$102.31	12
13	Rhode Island	$10.85	Delaware	$20.97	Colorado	$63.40	Delaware	$98.36	13
14	Wisconsin	$10.57	Wisconsin	$20.97	Delaware	$62.27	Wisconsin	$97.86	14
15	Arizona	$10.32	New Mexico	$20.59	Oregon	$60.27	Connecticut	$97.57	15
16	Alaska	$10.09	Florida	$20.54	Wisconsin	$60.02	Massachusetts	$95.34	16
17	Oregon	$9.70	Oregon	$20.45	Hawaii	$59.44	Hawaii	$94.88	17
18	Pennsylvania	$9.69	Washington	$19.51	Connecticut	$57.45	Louisiana	$94.30	18
19	Washington	$9.51	Pennsylvania	$19.32	Rhode Island	$56.29	New Mexico	$91.51	19
20	Wyoming	$9.04	Rhode Island	$19.27	Louisiana	$56.23	Rhode Island	$91.16	20
21	Ohio	$8.95	Missouri	$18.78	Missouri	$55.95	Oregon	$88.48	21
22	Missouri	$8.66	Ohio	$18.39	New Mexico	$53.88	Washington	$85.92	22
23	New Mexico	$8.25	Colorado	$17.28	Pennsylvania	$51.93	Minnesota	$80.67	23
24	Delaware	$8.24	Wyoming	$17.25	Washington	$51.85	Ohio	$79.92	24
25	Texas	$8.19	Louisiana	$17.04	Utah	$50.37	Utah	$79.61	25
26	Louisiana	$8.13	Texas	$15.78	Ohio	$50.04	Missouri	$79.09	26
27	Montana	$7.82	Virginia	$15.07	Minnesota	$48.90	Virginia	$78.33	27
28	Indiana	$7.55	Minnesota	$14.96	Montana	$47.43	Texas	$76.13	28
29	Virginia	$7.52	Vermont	$14.52	Virginia	$46.31	Kansas	$76.62	29
30	Minnesota	$7.44	Maine	$14.08	Nebraska	$45.19	Pennsylvania	$71.35	30
31	Utah	$7.25	Iowa	$13.75	New Hampshire	$44.58	Montana	$70.74	31
32	Idaho	$7.15	North Carolina	$13.72	North Carolina	$43.89	Georgia	$69.33	32
33	New Hampshire	$6.90	Nebraska	$13.71	Texas	$43.70	Idaho	$67.82	33
34	Iowa	$6.70	Utah	$13.66	Idaho	$43.13	New Hampshire	$67.61	34
35	Maine	$6.57	Montana	$13.59	Georgia	$42.43	Iowa	$66.84	35
36	Georgia	$6.48	Kentucky	$13.53	Oklahoma	$42.34	Oklahoma	$66.59	36
37	Nebraska	$6.29	Kansas	$13.52	Kentucky	$42.08	North Carolina	$66.09	37
38	Oklahoma	$6.26	Indiana	$13.48	Iowa	$41.39	Nebraska	$65.24	38
39	Kansas	$6.24	New Hampshire	$13.21	Alabama	$41.19	Tennessee	$61.26	39
40	Tennessee	$6.10	Idaho	$13.17	Tennessee	$40.72	Vermont	$60.99	40
41	North Carolina	$5.79	Oklahoma	$12.99	Kansas	$40.22	Alabama	$60.75	41
42	Alabama	$5.77	Georgia	$12.99	South Carolina	$38.75	South Carolina	$59.96	42
	South Carolina	$5.77	Tennessee	$12.98	Indiana	$38.35	South Dakota	$58.70	43
44	Kentucky	$5.68	Mississippi	$12.03	South Dakota	$38.16	Maine	$57.10	44
45	Vermont	$5.63	South Carolina	$11.90	Vermont	$37.90	Kentucky	$55.29	45
46	North Dakota	$5.52	South Dakota	$11.64	Maine	$37.79	Indiana	$54.10	46
47	South Dakota	$5.13	Alabama	$11.58	North Carolina	$43.89	North Dakota	$52.98	47
48	Mississippi	$4.68	North Dakota	$11.16	Mississippi	$33.21	Mississippi	$52.44	48
49	WEST VIRGINIA	$4.58	WEST VIRGINIA	$9.58	Arkansas	$31.24	Arkansas	$49.86	49
50	Arkansas	$4.53	Arkansas	$9.32	WEST VIRGINIA	$29.38	WEST VIRGINIA	$42.34	50

Source: GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1960, 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Dept. of Commerce.

TABLE 2

STATE AND LOCAL EXPENDITURES FOR POLICE PER $1,000 OF PERSONAL INCOME
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$4.64	U.S. Avg.	$5.04	U.S. Avg.	$6.24	U.S. Avg.	$6.85	
1	New Mexico	$8.25	Nevada	$10.31	Alaska	$10.86	Alaska	$11.20	1
2	Arizona	$8.24	New York	$9.28	Arizona	$8.93	Wyoming	$9.70	2
3	Hawaii	$6.31	Arizona	$7.73	New York	$8.44	Nevada	$9.50	3
4	New York	$5.96	California	$7.65	Florida	$7.48	Arizona	$9.34	4
5	Florida	$5.78	Maryland	$7.34	Michigan	$7.38	New York	$9.05	5
6	Nevada	$5.62	New Mexico	$7.26	Nevada	$7.20	New Mexico	$8.55	6
7	California	$5.42	Hawaii	$7.06	California	$7.03	Louisiana	$8.40	7
	New Jersey	$5.42	New Jersey	$6.58	Illinois	$6.98	California	$8.30	8
9	Maryland	$5.12	Illinois	$6.28	New Mexico	$6.86	Florida	$8.28	9
10	Massachusetts	$5.09	Florida	$6.23	Wyoming	$6.79	Utah	$7.68	10
11	Louisiana	$5.07	Wisconsin	$6.03	Massachusetts	$6.64	Michigan	$7.57	11
12	Rhode Island	$4.87	Massachusetts	$5.99	Louisiana	$6.63	Wisconsin	$7.45	12
	Wisconsin	$4.87	Louisiana	$5.96	New Jersey	$6.62	Colorado	$7.37	13
14	Michigan	$4.86	Oregon	$5.90	Utah	$6.57	Illinois	$7.04	14
15	Colorado	$4.68	Michigan	$5.51	Maryland	$6.45	Oregon	$7.04	
16	Illinois	$4.61	Missouri	$5.46	Oregon	$6.45	Delaware	$7.01	16
17	Oregon	$4.30	Alaska	$5.33	Wisconsin	$6.40	Hawaii	$6.92	17
18	Pennsylvania	$4.28	Wyoming	$5.31	Colorado	$6.31	New Jersey	$6.80	18
19	Texas	$4.25	Pennsylvania	$5.28	Missouri	$6.21	Maryland	$6.66	19
20	South Carolina	$4.13	Rhode Island	$5.21	Delaware	$6.01	Rhode Island	$6.60	20
21	Connecticut	$4.11	Delaware	$5.19	Rhode Island	$5.94	Montana	$6.39	21
	Washington	$4.11	Connecticut	$5.13	Hawaii	$5.87	Washington	$3.27	22
23	Georgia	$4.03	Mississippi	$5.10	North Carolina	$5.60	Idaho	$6.09	23
24	Virginia	$4.01	Washington	$5.08	Montana	$5.54	Ohio	$6.05	24
25	Mississippi	$3.99	Colorado	$5.03	Kentucky	$5.51	Missouri	$6.02	25
26	Idaho	$3.98	Ohio	$4.88	Alabama	$5.49	Massachusetts	$5.83	26
27	Alabama	$3.95	Texas	$4.85	Pennsylvania	$5.49	Minnesota	$5.76	27
	Tennessee	$3.95	Kentucky	$4.74	Idaho	$5.34	North Carolina	$5.76	
29	Missouri	$3.94	Maine	$4.69	South Carolina	$5.32	Texas	$5.75	29
30	Montana	$3.87	North Carolina	$4.64	Ohio	$5.27	Alabama	$5.74	30
	Wyoming	$3.87	Utah	$4.63	Tennessee	$5.26	Mississippi	$5.73	31
32	Ohio	$3.83	Vermont	$4.56	Georgia	$5.24	South Carolina	$5.72	32
33	Utah	$3.80	Tennessee	$4.55	Mississippi	$5.03	Georgia	$5.65	33
34	Kentucky	$3.68	Virginia	$4.54	Minnesota	$5.02	Tennessee	$5.50	34
	North Carolina	$3.68	Idaho	$4.43	Washington	$5.02	Virginia	$5.46	35
36	Alaska	$3.66	South Carolina	$4.39	Virginia	$4.92	Oklahoma	$5.45	36
37	Minnesota	$3.62	Alabama	$4.38	Connecticut	$4.89	Connecticut	$5.42	37
38	Indiana	$3.46	Montana	$4.33	New Hampshire	$4.88	Pennsylvania	$5.33	38
	Maine	$3.46	Oklahoma	$4.26	South Dakota	$4.86	Kansas	$5.29	39
40	Oklahoma	$3.39	Minnesota	$4.23	Vermont	$4.83	South Dakota	$5.26	40
41	Arkansas	$3.38	Georgia	$4.18	Nebraska	$4.82	Iowa	$5.25	41
42	Iowa	$3.35	Iowa	$3.93	Maine	$4.75	Kentucky	$5.11	42
43	New Hampshire	$3.33	South Dakota	$3.91	Oklahoma	$4.63	Vermont	$5.09	43
44	North Dakota	$3.17	Nebraska	$3.90	Texas	$4.57	Nebraska	$4.89	44
45	Vermont	$3.03	New Hampshire	$3.90	Iowa	$4.41	Maine	$4.85	45
46	Kansas	$3.02	Kansas	$3.76	North Dakota	$4.30	Arkansas	$4.79	46
47	Nebraska	$2.98	North Dakota	$3.73	Arkansas	$4.29	New Hampshire	$4.65	47
48	South Dakota	$2.79	Indiana	$3.71	Indiana	$4.28	North Dakota	$4.36	48
49	Delaware	$2.74	Arkansas	$3.61	Kansas	$4.02	Indiana	$4.35	49
50	WEST VIRGINIA	$2.73	WEST VIRGINIA	$3.53	WEST VIRGINIA	$3.76	WEST VIRGINIA	$4.12	50

Source: GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1960, 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 3

POLICE EXPENDITURES AS
PERCENT OF TOTAL STATE AND LOCAL SPENDING
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	3.6%	U.S. Avg.	3.4%	U.S. Avg.	3.1%	U.S. Avg.	3.2%	
1	New Jersey	5.6%	Nevada	5.1%	Florida	4.5%	Florida	4.4%	1
2	Maryland	4.6%	New Jersey	4.6%	Arizona	4.0%	Nevada	4.2%	2
3	New York	4.4%	New York	4.5%	Illinois	4.0%	California	3.8%	3
4	Massachusetts	4.3%	Illinois	4.4%	Minnesota	4.0%	Illinois	3.8%	
5	Illinois	4.2%	Maryland	4.3%	New Jersey	3.8%	Arizona	3.7%	5
	Rhode Island	4.2%	Arizona	4.0%	California	3.4%	Missouri	3.7%	
7	Florida	4.1%	Florida	3.9%	Nevada	3.4%	New Jersey	3.7%	
8	California	3.9%	California	3.8%	Colorado	3.3%	Maryland	3.6%	8
9	Connecticut	3.8%	Massachusetts	3.5%	Connecticut	3.3%	Colorado	3.5%	9
	Nevada	3.8%	Connecticut	3.4%	Maryland	3.3%	Connecticut	3.4%	10
	Pennsylvania	3.8%	Missouri	3.4%	Michigan	3.3%	New York	3.4%	
12	Michigan	3.7%	Ohio	3.4%	New York	3.3%	Louisiana	3.3%	12
	Missouri	3.7%	Michigan	3.2%	Louisiana	3.2%	Wisconsin	3.3%	
14	Wisconsin	3.6%	Pennsylvania	3.2%	Mississippi	3.2%	Delaware	3.2%	14
15	Virginia	3.5%	New Mexico	3.1%	Delaware	3.1%	Michigan	3.2%	
16	Hawaii	3.4%	Rhode Island	3.1%	Massachusetts	3.1%	Virginia	3.2%	
17	Arizona	3.3%	Texas	3.1%	Missouri	3.1%	Hawaii	3.1%	17
	Ohio	3.3%	Louisiana	3.0%	Wisconsin	3.0%	New Mexico	3.1%	
	Texas	3.3%	North Carolina	3.0%	New Hampshire	2.9%	Rhode Island	3.1%	
20	Colorado	3.2%	Oregon	3.0%	New Mexico	2.9%	Idaho	3.0%	20
	South Carolina	3.2%	Wisconsin	3.0%	North Carolina	2.9%	New Hampshire	3.0%	
22	Indiana	3.0%	Virginia	2.9%	Ohio	2.9%	Massachusetts	2.9%	22
	North Carolina	3.0%	Colorado	2.7%	Pennsylvania	2.9%	Ohio	2.9%	
24	Alaska	2.9%	Delaware	2.7%	Virginia	2.9%	Texas	2.9%	
	Georgia	2.9%	Hawaii	2.7%	Idaho	2.8%	Oregon	2.8%	25
	Kentucky	2.9%	Indiana	2.6%	Rhode Island	2.8%	Kansas	2.7%	26
	Washington	2.9%	Maine	2.6%	Utah	2.8%	North Carolina	2.7%	
28	Oregon	2.8%	South Carolina	2.6%	Wyoming	2.8%	Pennsylvania	2.7%	
	Tennessee	2.8%	Tennessee	2.6%	Hawaii	2.7%	Georgia	2.6%	29
30	Alabama	2.7%	Washington	2.6%	Indiana	2.7%	Oklahoma	2.6%	
	New Mexico	2.7%	Kentucky	2.5%	Oregon	2.7%	Wyoming	2.6%	
32	Maine	2.6%	Georgia	2.4%	Texas	2.7%	Kentucky	2.5%	32
33	Delaware	2.5%	Nebraska	2.4%	Alabama	2.6%	Alabama	2.4%	33
	Idaho	2.5%	New Hampshire	2.4%	Georgia	2.6%	Arkansas	2.4%	
	Louisiana	2.5%	Oklahoma	2.3%	Oklahoma	2.6%	Indiana	2.4%	
	New Hampshire	2.5%	Alabama	2.3%	South Carolina	2.6%	Iowa	2.4%	
37	Utah	2.4%	Mississippi	2.3%	Kentucky	2.5%	Mississippi	2.4%	
38	Arkansas	2.3%	Idaho	2.2%	Montana	2.4%	South Carolina	2.4%	
	Iowa	2.3%	Kansas	2.2%	Arkansas	2.3%	South Dakota	2.4%	
	Nebraska	2.3%	Utah	2.2%	Maine	2.3%	Utah	2.4%	
	Minnesota	2.3%	Iowa	2.1%	Tennessee	2.3%	Washington	2.4%	
	Montana	2.3%	Minnesota	2.1%	Iowa	2.2%	Minnesota	2.3%	42
43	Oklahoma	2.2%	Arkansas	2.0%	Kansas	2.2%	Montana	2.3%	
44	Kansas	2.1%	Montana	2.0%	South Dakota	2.1%	Tennessee	2.3%	
	WEST VIRGINIA	2.1%	Vermont	2.0%	Vermont	2.1%	Maine	2.2%	45
46	Mississippi	2.0%	Wyoming	2.0%	Alaska	2.0%	Vermont	2.1%	46
	Wyoming	2.0%	South Dakota	1.8%	Washington	2.0%	Alaska	1.9%	47
48	South Dakota	1.7%	North Dakota	1.7%	Nebraska	1.9%	Nebraska	1.9%	
	Vermont	1.7%	WEST VIRGINIA	1.7%	North Dakota	1.9%	North Dakota	1.8%	49
50	North Dakota	1.5%	Alaska	1.6%	WEST VIRGINIA	1.6%	WEST VIRGINIA	1.7%	50

Source: GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1960, 1969-70, 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Department of Commerce.

TABLE 4

TOTAL CRIME RATE PER 100,000 POPULATION
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	1037.9	U.S. Avg.	2746.7	U.S. Avg.	5900.0	U.S. Avg.	5480.0	
1	Nevada	1993.2	California	4306.9	Nevada	8854.0	Florida	8228.0	1
2	California	1976.3	Nevada	3996.8	Florida	8402.0	Texas	7408.0	2
3	Colorado	1753.0	New York	3921.7	Arizona	8171.0	Arizona	7321.0	3
4	Arizona	1638.6	Michigan	3790.1	California	7833.0	Oregon	7081.0	4
5	Florida	1609.0	Colorado	3661.3	Hawaii	7482.0	Colorado	7032.0	5
6	Illinois	1440.4	Florida	3600.0	Colorado	7333.0	Washington	6880.0	6
7	New Mexico	1331.4	Arizona	3445.7	Washington	6915.0	California	6763.0	7
8	Rhode Island	1291.4	Hawaii	3395.7	New York	6912.0	New Mexico	6626.0	8
9	Michigan	1230.9	Maryland	3346.7	Delaware	6777.0	Michigan	6491.0	9
10	Texas	1177.6	Washington	3156.0	Oregon	6687.0	Nevada	6290.0	10
11	Utah	1118.8	Massachusetts	3004.0	Michigan	6676.0	Alaska	6246.0	11
12	Missouri	1115.7	Oregon	2987.1	Maryland	6630.0	Louisiana	6087.0	12
13	Hawaii	1104.9	Delaware	2973.8	New Jersey	6401.0	Oklahoma	6014.0	13
14	Oklahoma	1063.6	Rhode Island	2926.1	Alaska	6210.0	New York	5768.0	14
15	New York	1044.9	New Mexico	2866.2	Texas	6143.0	Hawaii	5671.0	15
16	Washington	1033.2	Missouri	2764.9	Massachusetts	6079.0	Maryland	5602.0	16
17	Louisiana	1028.3	New Jersey	2743.0	New Mexico	5979.0	Illinois	5546.0	17
18	Alaska	1011.2	Texas	2705.7	Rhode Island	5933.0	Utah	5478.0	18
19	New Jersey	994.0	Alaska	2690.1	Connecticut	5882.0	Georgia	5455.0	19
20	Montana	982.4	Connecticut	2574.0	Utah	5881.0	New Jersey	5241.0	20
21	Delaware	969.4	Louisiana	2404.6	Georgia	5604.0	South Carolina	5137.0	21
22	Maryland	931.6	Ohio	2377.5	Louisiana	5454.0	Rhode Island	4902.0	22
23	Oregon	924.3	Utah	2372.4	South Carolina	5439.0	Delaware	4832.0	23
24	Wyoming	893.7	Illinois	2347.1	Missouri	5433.0	Connecticut	4829.0	24
25	Georgia	886.4	Indiana	2270.2	Ohio	5431.0	Kansas	4823.0	25
26	Indiana	855.6	Georgia	2207.2	Kansas	5379.0	Massachusetts	4723.0	26
27	South Carolina	826.8	Virginia	2148.8	Illinois	5275.0	Maryland	4654.0	27
28	Virginia	823.0	Kansas	2144.4	Oklahoma	5053.0	Tennessee	4534.0	28
29	Alabama	819.7	Minnesota	2103.8	Montana	5024.0	Montana	4479.0	29
30	Tennessee	817.0	South Carolina	2065.7	Vermont	4988.0	Minnesota	4362.0	30
31	Kentucky	811.8	Oklahoma	1949.3	Wyoming	4986.0	Ohio	4359.0	31
32	Minnesota	763.9	Kentucky	1924.6	Alabama	4934.0	Wyoming	4357.0	32
33	Massachusetts	758.4	Tennessee	1888.3	Indiana	4930.0	North Carolina	4332.0	33
34	Idaho	704.3	Alabama	1864.5	Minnesota	4799.0	Alabama	4288.0	34
35	Pennsylvania	688.2	North Carolina	1862.9	Wisconsin	4799.0	Idaho	4207.0	35
36	Ohio	679.0	Idaho	1785.4	Idaho	4782.0	Iowa	4151.0	36
37	Connecticut	678.1	Wyoming	1746.0	Iowa	4747.0	Wisconsin	4097.0	37
38	Kansas	673.3	Montana	1637.0	New Hampshire	4680.0	Vermont	3977.0	38
39	Arkansas	579.6	Arkansas	1603.8	North Carolina	4640.0	Arkansas	3925.0	39
40	South Dakota	565.9	Pennsylvania	1541.6	Virginia	4620.0	Virginia	3860.0	40
41	Vermont	551.2	Nebraska	1518.6	Tennessee	4498.0	Nebraska	3856.0	41
42	Maine	539.9	Wisconsin	1515.8	Maine	4368.0	Indiana	3855.0	42
43	North Carolina	529.2	Iowa	1435.6	Nebraska	4305.0	Maine	3461.0	43
44	Nebraska	524.2	Vermont	1270.2	Arkansas	3811.0	Mississippii	3345.0	44
45	Iowa	516.7	New Hampshire	1193.1	Pennsylvania	3736.0	New Hampshire	3330.0	45
46	Wisconsin	513.6	South Dakota	1152.0	Kentucky	3434.0	Pennsylvania	3102.0	46
47	WEST VIRGINIA	466.7	Maine	1141.1	Mississippi	3417.0	Kentucky	3092.0	47
48	Mississippi	439.6	WEST VIRGINIA	959.2	South Dakota	3243.0	South Dakota	2716.0	48
49	North Dakota	375.3	Mississippi	863.4	North Dakota	2964.0	North Dakota	2605.0	49
50	New Hampshire	342.1	North Dakota	846.2	WEST VIRGINIA	2552.0	WEST VIRGINIA	2317.0	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, 1973, 1981 and 1988, U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Note: Total includes the District of Columbia.

Includes violent crimes and property crimes reported to the police.

TABLE 5

PROPERTY CRIME RATE PER 100,000 POPULATION
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	901.9	U.S. Avg.	2386.0	U.S. Avg.	5319.0	U.S. Avg.	4862.6	
1	Nevada	1847.3	California	3832.0	Nevada	7941.0	Florida	7191.9	1
2	California	1735.9	Nevada	3598.0	Arizona	7519.0	Texas	6749.2	2
3	Colorado	1614.5	Colorado	3305.0	Florida	7418.0	Arizona	6663.1	3
4	Arizona	1441.7	Hawaii	3275.0	Hawaii	7182.0	Oregon	6531.0	4
5	Florida	1394.3	New York	3246.0	California	6940.0	Colorado	6508.3	5
6	Rhode Island	1253.8	Michigan	3214.0	Colorado	6805.0	Washington	6442.6	6
7	New Mexico	1184.4	Florida	3102.0	Washington	6451.0	New Mexico	5900.3	7
8	Illinois	1169.0	Arizona	3075.0	Delaware	6302.0	California	5842.3	8
9	Hawaii	1080.7	Washington	2935.0	Oregon	6196.0	Michigan	5687.6	9
10	Utah	1045.1	Massachusetts	2801.0	Michigan	6036.0	Alaska	5675.5	10
11	Michigan	1044.5	Oregon	2730.0	New York	5882.0	Oklahoma	5577.7	11
12	Texas	1015.0	Maryland	2722.0	New Jersey	5797.0	Nevada	5570.8	12
13	Washington	978 2	Rhode Island	2721.0	Maryland	5778.0	Hawaii	5426.2	13
14	Oklahoma	967.1	Delaware	2646.0	Alaska	5731.0	Louisiana	5319.8	14
15	Missouri	932.3	New Mexico	2573.0	Texas	5592.0	Utah	5211.7	15
16	Montana	918.7	New Jersey	2456.0	Utah	5578.0	Georgia	4867.8	16
17	New York	917.8	Alaska	2412.0	Rhode Island	5524.0	New York	4781.8	17
18	Alaska	906.8	Connecticut	2404.0	Massachusetts	5478.0	Maryland	4768.8	18
19	Delaware	899.0	Missouri	2359.0	Connecticut	5467.0	Illinois	4746.0	19
20	Louisiana	879.3	Texas	2344.0	New Mexico	5365.0	New Jersey	4668.8	20
21	New Jersey	877.4	Utah	2235.0	Georgia	5048.0	Rhode Island	4567.0	21
22	Oregon	854.7	Ohio	2093.0	Kansas	4989.0	South Carolina	4462.8	22
23	Maryland	790.8	Indiana	2045.0	Ohio	4933.0	Kansas	4453.8	23
24	Wyoming	776.8	Louisiana	1991.0	Missouri	4879.0	Delaware	4404.6	24
25	Indiana	774.7	Minnesota	1952.0	Vermont	4810.0	Connecticut	4403.0	25
26	Georgia	741.3	Kansas	1942.0	Montana	4803.0	Montana	4321.5	26
27	Tennessee	725.1	Georgia	1903.0	Louisiana	4788.0	Massachusetts	4166.5	27
28	Minnesota	719.9	Virginia	1890.0	Illinois	4781.0	Minnesota	4077.6	28
29	Kentucky	714.0	Illinois	1879.0	South Carolina	4779.0	Missouri	4075.5	29
30	Massachusetts	710.6	South Carolina	1781.0	Oklahoma	4634.0	Wyoming	4064.1	30
31	South Carolina	681.5	Oklahoma	1752.0	Wisconsin	4615.0	Tennessee	3994.6	31
32	Virginia	678.3	Kentucky	1702.0	Wyoming	4594.0	Idaho	3984.4	32
33	Idaho	666.3	Idaho	1662.0	Minnesota	4572.0	Ohio	3937.8	33
34	Alabama	647.4	Wyoming	1633.0	Indiana	4552.0	Iowa	3915.6	34
35	Connecticut	640.8	Tennessee	1613.0	Iowa	4547.0	North Carolina	3856.0	35
36	Kansas	615.0	Alabama	1569.0	New Hampshire	4500.0	Wisconsin	3838.9	36
37	Ohio	593.9	Montana	1526.0	Alabama	4485.0	Vermont	3827.7	37
38	Pennsylvania	586.6	North Carolina	1500.0	Idaho	4469.0	Alabama	3730.3	38
39	Vermont	541.7	Wisconsin	1430.0	Virginia	4313.0	Nebraska	3593.1	39
40	South Dakota	533.3	Arkansas	1381.0	North Carolina	4185.0	Virginia	3553.8	40
41	Maine	514.6	Iowa	1356.0	Maine	4174.0	Indiana	3547.1	41
42	Iowa	492.5	Nebraska	1334.0	Nebraska	4081.0	Arkansas	3529.9	42
43	Wisconsin	484.1	Pennsylvania	1329.0	Tennessee	4039.0	Maine	3314.2	43
44	Nebraska	483.2	Vermont	1196.0	Arkansas	3476.0	New Hampshire	3190.6	44
45	Arkansas	480.6	New Hampshire	1137.0	Pennsylvania	3373.0	Mississippi	3070.9	45
46	North Carolina	476.6	South Dakota	1060.0	Kentucky	3168.0	Kentucky	2757.8	46
47	WEST VIRGINIA	408.9	Maine	1058.0	South Dakota	3117.0	Pennsylvania	2743.3	47
48	North Dakota	361.1	WEST VIRGINIA	835.0	Mississippi	3075.0	South Dakota	2591.2	48
49	Mississippi	343.5	North Dakota	812.0	North Dakota	2909.0	North Dakota	2554.2	49
50	New Hampshire	328.8	Mississippi	684.0	WEST VIRGINIA	2368.0	WEST VIRGINIA	2152.2	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, 1973, 1981 and 1988, U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Note: Total includes the District of Columbia.

Property crimes include burglary, larceny $50 and over, and auto theft.

TABLE 6

VIOLENT CRIME RATES PER 100,000 POPULATION
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	136.0	U.S. Avg.	360.7	U.S. Avg.	581.1	U.S. Avg.	617.3	
1	Illinois	271.4	New York	675.7	New York	1029.9	Florida	1036.5	1
2	California	240.4	Maryland	624.7	Florida	983.9	New York	985.9	2
3	Florida	214.7	Michigan	576.1	Nevada	913.8	California	920.5	3
4	Arizona	196.9	Florida	498.0	California	893.9	Maryland	833.0	4
5	Michigan	186.4	California	474.9	Maryland	852.3	Michigan	803.9	5
6	Missouri	183.4	Illinois	468.1	Louisiana	665.2	Illinois	800.0	6
7	Alabama	171.3	Louisiana	413.6	South Carolina	660.0	Louisiana	758.2	7
8	Texas	162.6	Missouri	405.9	Arizona	651.1	New Mexico	725.6	8
9	Louisiana	149.0	Nevada	398.8	Michigan	639.8	Nevada	718.9	9
10	New Mexico	147.0	Arizona	370.7	New Mexico	615.3	South Carolina	674.6	10
11	Nevada	145.9	North Carolina	362.9	New Jersey	604.3	Texas	658.9	11
12	South Carolina	145.3	Texas	361.7	Massachusetts	600.9	Arizona	658.3	12
13	Georgia	145.1	Colorado	356.3	Georgia	555.7	Georgia	587.6	13
14	Virginia	144.7	Delaware	327.8	Missouri	554.3	Missouri	578.6	14
15	Maryland	140.8	Georgia	304.2	Texas	550.7	New Jersey	572.5	15
16	Colorado	138.5	Alabama	295.5	Colorado	528.5	Alaska	570.4	16
17	New York	127.1	New Mexico	293.2	Ohio	498.1	Alabama	558.0	17
18	Wyoming	116.9	New Jersey	287.0	Illinois	494.5	Massachusetts	556.9	18
19	New Jersey	116.6	South Carolina	284.7	Oregon	490.0	Oregon	549.7	19
20	Alaska	104.4	Ohio	284.5	Alaska	479.2	Colorado	523.6	20
21	Pennsylvania	101.6	Alaska	278.1	Delaware	475.1	North Carolina	475.9	21
22	Arkansas	99.0	Tennessee	275.3	Washington	463.9	Tennessee	474.4	22
23	Kentucky	97.8	Virginia	258.8	Tennessee	457.8	Washington	437.0	23
24	Oklahoma	96.5	Oregon	257.1	North Carolina	454.6	Oklahoma	436.4	24
25	Mississippi	96.1	Indiana	225.2	Alabama	448.3	Delaware	427.0	25
26	Tennessee	91.9	Arkansas	222.8	Oklahoma	419.2	Connecticut	425.8	26
27	Ohio	85.1	Kentucky	222.6	Connecticut	412.3	Ohio	420.9	27
28	Indiana	80.9	Washington	221.0	Rhode Island	408.1	Arkansas	394.8	28
29	Utah	73.7	Pennsylvania	212.6	Wyoming	392.2	Kansas	368.8	29
30	Delaware	70.4	Rhode Island	205.1	Kansas	389.5	Pennsylvania	358.6	30
31	Oregon	69.6	Massachusetts	203.0	Indiana	377.4	Rhode Island	335.5	31
32	Montana	63.7	Kansas	202.4	Pennsylvania	363.7	Kentucky	334.4	32
33	Kansas	58.3	Oklahoma	197.3	Mississippi	342.1	Indiana	307.7	33
34	WEST VIRGINIA	57.8	Nebraska	184.6	Arkansas	334.8	Virginia	306.0	34
35	Washington	55.0	Mississippi	179.4	Idaho	313.3	Wyoming	293.1	35
36	North Carolina	52.6	Connecticut	170.0	Virginia	307.1	Minnesota	284.6	36
37	Massachusetts	47.8	Minnesota	151.8	Utah	303.7	Mississippi	274.1	37
38	Minnesota	44.0	Utah	137.4	Hawaii	299.6	Utah	266.7	38
39	Nebraska	41.0	WEST VIRGINIA	124.2	Kentucky	266.2	Nebraska	262.6	39
40	Idaho	38.0	Idaho	123.4	Minnesota	227.9	Wisconsin	257.9	40
41	Rhode Island	37.6	Hawaii	121.7	Nebraska	224.8	Hawaii	245.2	41
42	Connecticut	37.3	Wyoming	113.0	Montana	223.0	Iowa	235.1	42
43	South Dakota	32.6	Montana	111.0	Iowa	200.4	Idaho	222.5	43
44	Wisconsin	29.5	South Dakota	92.0	Maine	193.5	WEST VIRGINIA	164.5	44
45	Maine	25.3	Wisconsin	85.8	WEST VIRGINIA	183.4	Montana	157.4	45
46	Iowa	24.2	Maine	83.1	Wisconsin	182.5	Vermont	149.2	46
47	Hawaii	21.8	Iowa	79.6	New Hampshire	179.8	Maine	147.0	47
48	North Dakota	14.2	Vermont	74.2	Vermont	179.2	New Hampshire	139.5	48
49	New Hampshire	13.3	New Hampshire	56.1	South Dakota	127.3	South Dakota	124.7	49
50	Vermont	9.5	North Dakota	34.2	North Dakota	54.4	North Dakota	51.3	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, 1973, 1981 and 1988, U.S. Department of Commerce.

Note: Total includes the District of Columbia.

Violent crimes include murder, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault.

TABLE 7

INMATES PER 100,000 POPULATION
IN STATE CORRECTIONAL FACILITIES
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	107	U.S. Avg.	85	U.S. Avg.	125	U.S. Avg.	227	
1	Georgia	180	North Carolina	187	North Carolina	256	Nevada	468	1
2	Maryland	174	Georgia	172	Georgia	237	Alaska(1)	461	2
3	Alabama	165	Texas	138	South Carolina	235	Delaware(1)	447	3
4	Virginia	150	Florida	134	Delaware	234	South Carolina	346	4
5	Nevada	146	Maryland	128	Nevada	205	Louisiana	324	5
6	Florida	144	Oklahoma	124	Florida	201	Maryland	299	6
7	California	139	South Carolina	124	Texas	198	Oklahoma	290	7
8	New Mexico	134	Nevada	121	Louisiana	187	Alabama	289	8
9	North Carolina	133	Alabama	109	Maryland	184	Georgia	285	9
10	WEST VIRGINIA	130	Virginia	104	Virginia	179	Arizona	284	10
11	Michigan	122	Louisiana	97	Alaska	152	North Carolina	281	11
12	Texas	120	California	90	Michigan	148	Florida	276	12
	Kentucky	120	Michigan	90	Tennessee	137	Mississippi	257	13
	Colorado	120	Kentucky	87	Connecticut	133	Texas	231	14
15	Oklahoma	116	Mississippi	86	Oklahoma	133	Michigan	227	15
	Louisiana	116	Arkansas	86	Ohio	124	Virginia	223	16
	Arizona	116	Washington	84	Mississippi	123	Kansas	221	17
	Indiana	116	Arizona	84	Arizona	122	California	221	
19	Ohio	114	Tennessee	80	New York	120	Connecticut(1)	217	19
20	Arkansas	113	Wyoming	80	New Mexico	119	New York	216	20
21	Kansas	108	Missouri	79	Alabama	118	Ohio	209	21
22	Wyoming	103	New Jersey	77	Arkansas	112	Missouri	207	22
23	New York	102	Colorado	75	Missouri	112	Hawaii(1)	205	23
24	Oregon	97	Ohio	74	Indiana	111	Arkansas	198	24
25	Hawaii	96	Oregon	72	Oregon	108	Indiana	185	25
26	Nebraska	91	New York	69	Washington	108	New Mexico	183	26
	Mississippi	91	Kansas	68	Wyoming	105	Oregon	176	27
28	Montana	90	Indiana	65	Illinois	102	Wyoming	171	28
	Illinois	90	New Mexico	64	Kentucky	102	Kentucky	170	29
30	South Carolina	89	Nebraska	61	California	99	Illinois	168	30
31	Tennessee	88	Connecticut	60	Idaho	94	New Jersey	158	31
	Washington	88	WEST VIRGINIA	55	Montana	93	Tennessee	150	32
33	Missouri	86	Idaho	54	Kansas	92	Washington	148	33
34	Idaho	82	Alaska	53	South Dakota	91	South Dakota	148	34
35	Iowa	80	Pennsylvania	52	Vermont	91	Idaho	145	35
36	Maine	79	Illinois	50	Colorado	82	Rhode Island(1)	140	36
37	South Dakota	78	Iowa	49	Iowa	78	Montana	136	37
38	New Jersey	71	Maine	49	Wisconsin	77	Pennsylvania	128	38
39	Wisconsin	70	Delaware	48	Rhode Island	74	Vermont(1)	125	39
40	Pennsylvania	69	Utah	45	Maine	73	Nebraska	122	40
	Vermont	69	Wisconsin	45	Hawaii	69	Wisconsin	119	41
42	Utah	62	Montana	42	Pennsylvania	69	Colorado	112	42
43	Minnesota	60	Rhode Island	41	Utah	64	Maine	112	
44	Connecticut	59	Vermont	40	Nebraska	62	Utah	111	44
45	Delaware	51	South Dakota	38	WEST VIRGINIA	61	Iowa	97	45
46	North Dakota	39	Hawaii	37	Minnesota	49	Massachusetts(2)	97	46
47	Massachusetts	38	Massachusetts	36	New Jersey	49	WEST VIRGINIA	77	47
48	Rhode Island	30	Minnesota	36	Massachusetts	47	New Hampshire	76	48
	New Hampshire	30	New Hampshire	31	North Dakota	43	North Dakota	62	49
50	Alaska	*	North Dakota	30	New Hampshire	27	Minnesota	58	50

Source: Bureau of Prisons, NATIONAL PRISONER STATISTICS, 1965.
CENSUS OF PRISONERS IN STATE CORRECTIONAL FACILITIES, 1973, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration.
JUVENILE/ADULT DIRECT, 1980. Adult Institutional Populations, American Correctional Association.
STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1988, U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.
Note: Inmates in state correctional facilities are adult or youth sentenced to term of at least one year.
(1) Includes both jail and prison inmates.
(2) Excludes state prisoners held in local jails because of overcrowding.

FEDERAL AID TO STATES

Table 1 indicates federal aid to state and local governments, general revenue funds, per capita. This figure includes all funds from the federal government. The national average has climbed steadily since 1960, when the average was $39 per capita to 1986's average of $469 per capita. In 1986, West Virginia ranked eighteenth, receiving $511. Alaska and Wyoming received the largest amount of aid from the federal government, while Arizona and Florida received the smallest amount.

Total federal aid to state and local governments, per capita, is found in Table 2. Federal aid to state and local governments is defined as the provision of resources by the federal government to support a state or local program of government service to the public. There are three primary forms of aid: grants-in-aid, loans, and "tax expenditures" (i.e., deductibility of many state and local taxes and the exclusion of interest on state and local securities from federal taxation due to constitutional and statutory provisions). Grants to state and local governments have risen considerably since 1960, when the national average was $38, compared to 1986's average of $460. West Virginia has steadily dropped from a 1970 ranking of sixth to a ranking of eleventh in 1986, with a per capita grant of $554. Some of the national increase is due in part to larger federal outlays on medicaid and highway construction.

Table 3 shows federal aid to state and local governments for education, per capita. The U.S. average increased by $7 between 1980 and 1986, from $30 per capita to $37 per capita. In 1986, West Virginia ranked twenty-first, tied with Nebraska, receiving $40 per capita for education from the federal government.

Federal aid to state and local governments for public assistance is listed in Table 4. In this measure, West Virginia rose in rank from twenty-fifth in 1980 to seventeenth in 1985. The State received $124 per capita for public assistance in 1985, just $1 above the national average of $123 per capita.

Per capita federal grants to state and local governments for the highway trust fund is found in Table 5. West Virginia was above the national average for all periods. In 1986, West Virginia ranked fourth, receiving $121.88 per capita for highways from the federal government. The national average for this measure in 1986 was $57.06 per capita.

Table 6 reports federal aid to state and local governments through general revenue sharing, per capita. General revenue sharing is a program in which the federal government distributes funds to state and local governments. Each jurisdiction may allocate the money for any purpose within state and local laws which are subject to minimum federal rules. The funds are apportioned using a formula based on the population, the general state tax effort, and the income of the state and local government.

The national average has declined considerably from $30 per capita in 1980 to $21 per capita in 1986. West Virginia was tied in fourth place in 1986 with Montana and Utah, receiving $27 per capita in general revenue sharing funds. Alaska was the highest ranked state, receiving $39 per capita; while, New Hampshire was the lowest ranked state, receiving $15 per capita.

TABLE 1

FEDERAL REVENUE TO STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS, GENERAL REVENUE FUNDS, PER CAPITA
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$39	U.S. Avg.	$108	U.S. Avg.	$366	U.S. Avg.	$469	
1	Alaska	$153	Alaska	$358	Alaska	$1,077	Wyoming	$968	1
2	Wyoming	$150	Wyoming	$254	Wyoming	$585	Alaska	$899	2
3	Montana	$78	New Mexico	$197	Montana	$551	New York	$691	3
4	New Mexico	$75	Hawaii	$189	Vermont	$539	Montana	$669	4
	North Dakota	$75	Montana	$175	Hawaii	$494	Vermont	$611	5
6	Nevada	$74	Utah	$165	New York	$482	Rhode Island	$602	6
7	Utah	$72	California	$164	Oregon	$481	North Dakota	$602	
8	Hawaii	$69	Vermont	$163	Massachusetts	$474	Maine	$590	8
9	Vermont	$68	Nevada	$157	Delaware	$469	South Dakota	$579	9
10	Louisiana	$64	WEST VIRGINIA	$152	South Dakota	$458	Utah	$556	10
	Oregon	$64	Oklahoma	$143	Rhode Island	$455	Massachusetts	$549	11
	South Dakota	$64	South Dakota	$139	Maine	$432	Oregon	$528	12
13	Idaho	$59	Oregon	$136	North Dakota	$428	Delaware	$527	13
14	Oklahoma	$56	Alabama	$131	New Mexico	$426	New Mexico	$522	14
15	Colorado	$54	Mississippi	$126	Mississippi	$426	California	$520	15
16	Arkansas	$50	North Dakota	$126	Michigan	$421	Minnesota	$519	16
	New Hampshire	$50	Colorado	$125	WEST VIRGINIA	$413	Michigan	$518	17
18	Arizona	$49	Rhode Island	$123	Louisiana	$403	WEST VIRGINIA	$511	18
19	Alabama	$47	Arizona	$121	California	$399	Hawaii	$501	19
	Mississippi	$47	New York	$121	Utah	$398	Mississippi	$500	20
21	California	$46	Louisiana	$120	Maryland	$397	Wisconsin	$494	21
	Missouri	$46	Washington	$117	Minnesota	$389	Pennsylvania	$476	22
23	Iowa	$45	Idaho	$116	Wisconsin	$379	Maryland	$467	23
	Kentucky	$45	Kentucky	$116	Alabama	$378	Kentucky	$467	
	Washington	$45	Arkansas	$115	Nevada	$378	Washington	$459	25
	WEST VIRGINIA	$45	Massachusetts	$107	Kentucky	$369	Louisiana	$452	26
27	Kansas	$44	Minnesota	$106	Washington	$369	Tennessee	$451	27
	Maine	$44	Tennessee	$106	Arkansas	$366	New Jersey	$450	28
29	Tennessee	$43	Maine	$100	Idaho	$356	Idaho	$447	29
30	Georgia	$42	Georgia	$99	Illinois	$353	Arkansas	$443	30
	Minnesota	$42	Missouri	$98	Georgia	$353	Illinois	$443	
32	Texas	$40	Kansas	$96	Colorado	$346	Nevada	$441	32
33	Nebraska	$38	Illinois	$94	Tennessee	$346	Alabama	$440	33
	South Carolina	$38	Michigan	$92	New Hampshire	$338	Georgia	$439	34
35	Florida	$37	Iowa	$91	Missouri	$337	Ohio	$438	35
	Rhode Island	$37	Maryland	$91	North Carolina	$333	Colorado	$430	36
37	Illinois	$35	Texas	$91	Oklahoma	$330	Connecticut	$428	37
38	Delaware	$34	Delaware	$88	Virginia	$323	Nebraska	$427	38
	North Carolina	$34	Virginia	$88	Connecticut	$314	Iowa	$413	39
40	Massachusetts	$32	New Hampshire	$87	Iowa	$314	South Carolina	$402	40
	Ohio	$32	Nebraska	$86	Kansas	$311	Virginia	$393	41
	Virginia	$32	Connecticut	$85	Pennsylvania	$310	Indiana	$390	42
43	Indiana	$30	Pennsylvania	$85	South Carolina	$310	North Carolina	$387	43
	Wisconsin	$30	South Carolina	$84	New Jersey	$309	New Hampshire	$386	44
45	New York	$29	Wisconsin	$82	Nebraska	$301	Oklahoma	$382	45
46	Michigan	$28	North Carolina	$81	Arizona	$297	Kansas	$374	46
47	Pennsylvania	$27	New Jersey	$75	Ohio	$285	Missouri	$374	
48	Connecticut	$26	Ohio	$73	Florida	$282	Texas	$330	48
49	Maryland	$25	Florida	$69	Texas	$264	Arizona	$311	49
50	New Jersey	$19	Indiana	$66	Indiana	$221	Florida	$298	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1962, 1972.
GOVERNMENTAL FINANCES in 1979-80 and 1985-86, U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 2

TOTAL FEDERAL AID TO
STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS, PER CAPITA
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$38	U.S. Avg.	$115	U.S. Avg.	$389	U.S. Avg.	$460	
1	Wyoming	$105	Alaska	$384	Alaska	$1,128	Alaska	$1,244	1
2	Alaska	$96	Wyoming	$251	Vermont	$696	Wyoming	$929	2
3	North Dakota	$76	New Mexico	$215	South Dakota	$642	Montana	$723	3
4	Montana	$69	Montana	$195	Wyoming	$625	New York	$697	4
5	Vermont	$67	Mississippi	$186	Montana	$618	South Dakota	$646	5
6	Idaho	$64	WEST VIRGINIA	$174	New York	$545	North Dakota	$638	6
	Louisiana	$64	Vermont	$173	North Dakota	$532	Vermont	$617	7
	South Dakota	$64	Utah	$164	New Mexico	$514	Rhode Island	$585	8
9	Nevada	$62	Hawaii	$161	Rhode Island	$504	New Mexico	$579	9
	New Mexico	$62	Oklahoma	$158	Massachusetts	$503	Maine	$573	10
	Oklahoma	$62	Nevada	$157	WEST VIRGINIA	$487	WEST VIRGINIA	$554	11
12	Utah	$61	South Dakota	$156	Hawaii	$480	Massachusetts	$528	12
13	WEST VIRGINIA	$53	Alabama	$152	Mississippi	$472	Mississippi	$512	13
14	Colorado	$52	California	$150	Oregon	$470	Minnesota	$501	14
15	Arkansas	$51	Louisiana	$145	Maine	$464	Oregon	$497	15
	New Hampshire	$51	Arkansas	$143	Delaware	$463	Delaware	$495	16
17	Arizona	$49	Kentucky	$142	Maryland	$437	Utah	$485	17
	Mississippi	$49	North Dakota	$142	Georgia	$434	Wisconsin	$483	18
	Oregon	$49	Oregon	$142	Wisconsin	$430	Pennsylvania	$481	19
20	Kentucky	$48	Rhode Island	$140	Michigan	$424	Kentucky	$479	20
	Missouri	$48	Arizona	$134	Nevada	$420	Michigan	$476	21
22	Alabama	$47	Idaho	$134	Idaho	$416	Arkansas	$474	22
23	Kansas	$45	New York	$130	Arkansas	$411	Connecticut	$471	23
	Maine	$45	Colorado	$128	Minnesota	$409	Louisiana	$453	24
25	Georgia	$44	Massachusetts	$126	Alabama	$407	Georgia	$448	25
26	Iowa	$43	Tennessee	$124	Washington	$405	Hawaii	$446	26
	Tennessee	$43	Georgia	$121	Kentucky	$402	Tennessee	$443	27
	Texas	$43	Washington	$117	Illinois	$392	Ohio	$443	28
29	Ohio	$40	Pennsylvania	$114	Utah	$391	New Jersey	$440	29
	Washington	$40	Maine	$113	New Jersey	$385	Maryland	$439	30
31	Rhode Island	$39	Minnesota	$107	Pennsylvania	$380	Nevada	$434	31
32	Minnesota	$38	Missouri	$107	New Hampshire	$375	Alabama	$434	
	Nebraska	$38	South Carolina	$107	Louisiana	$373	Illinois	$434	
	South Carolina	$38	Kansas	$103	California	$372	Idaho	$434	
35	Illinois	$36	Texas	$103	Connecticut	$372	Washington	$427	35
	Florida	$35	Maryland	$101	Tennessee	$369	Oklahoma	$423	36
37	Massachusetts	$34	North Carolina	$100	Oklahoma	$351	California	$419	37
	North Carolina	$34	Virginia	$100	Nebraska	$348	Nebraska	$413	38
39	California	$33	New Hampshire	$98	Kansas	$346	Iowa	$406	39
	Delaware	$33	Connecticut	$97	Missouri	$346	New Hampshire	$394	40
41	Hawaii	$31	Delaware	$93	Colorado	$344	South Carolina	$391	41
	New York	$31	Michigan	$87	South Carolina	$342	Missouri	$391	
	Virginia	$31	Nebraska	$87	Iowa	$341	Colorado	$374	43
44	Wisconsin	$30	Illinois	$86	Virginia	$332	Arizona	$364	44
45	Indiana	$28	Iowa	$86	North Carolina	$328	Indiana	$363	45
	Michigan	$28	New Jersey	$86	Ohio	$318	North Carolina	$360	46
47	Pennsylvania	$27	Ohio	$83	Arizona	$308	Kansas	$359	47
48	Connecticut	$26	Wisconsin	$83	Florida	$293	Virginia	$345	48
49	Maryland	$25	Florida	$75	Indiana	$293	Texas	$313	49
50	New Jersey	$20	Indiana	$68	Texas	$279	Florida	$278	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961.
"FEDERAL AID TO STATES", 1970, 1980, Department of the Treasury.
"FEDERAL EXPENDITURES BY STATE', 1986, Department of the Treasury.

TABLE 3

FEDERAL AID TO STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS FOR EDUCATION, PER CAPITA 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$2	U.S. Avg.	$14	U.S. Avg.	$30	U.S. Avg.	$37	
1	Alaska	$30	Alaska	$71	Alaska	$218	Alaska	$207	1
2	New Mexico	$10	New Mexico	$32	Montana	$79	South Dakota	$91	2
3	Nevada	$7	Hawaii	$29	North Dakota	$78	Montana	$83	3
4	Arizona	$6	Mississippi	$24	New Mexico	$76	New Mexico	$68	4
	Hawaii	$6	Alabama	$22	South Dakota	$71	North Dakota	$68	
	Montana	$6	South Carolina	$21	Delaware	$69	Delaware	$67	6
	Oklahoma	$6	South Dakota	$21	Georgia	$68	Wyoming	$61	7
	South Dakota	$6	Virginia	$21	Wyoming	$63	Mississippi	$57	8
	Virginia	$6	Massachusetts	$20	Vermont	$60	Arizona	$55	9
10	Colorado	$5	North Dakota	$20	Idaho	$56	Hawaii	$51	10
	Idaho	$5	Wyoming	$20	Nebraska	$49	Arkansas	$48	11
	Wyoming	$5	Arkansas	$19	Hawaii	$48	New Hampshire	$48	
13	Kansas	$4	Nevada	$19	Nevada	$48	Oklahoma	$48	
	Maryland	$4	North Carolina	$19	Arizona	$46	Kentucky	$47	14
	North Dakota	$4	Arkansas	$18	Mississippi	$46	Vermont	$46	15
	Utah	$4	Delaware	$18	New Hampshire	$45	Idaho	$45	16
	Washington	$4	Georgia	$18	Rhode Island	$42	Alabama	$44	17
18	Alabama	$3	Kentucky	$18	Arkansas	$40	Rhode Island	$42	18
	Arkansas	$3	Maryland	$18	Maine	$39	Maine	$41	19
	California	$3	Utah	$18	Oklahoma	$39	Maryland	$41	
	Delaware	$3	Oklahoma	$17	Utah	$39	Nebraska	$40	21
	Maine	$3	Colorado	$16	Wisconsin	$39	WEST VIRGINIA	$40	
	Mississippi	$3	Kansas	$16	Alabama	$37	Louisiana	$39	23
	Nebraska	$3	Louisiana	$16	South Carolina	$37	South Carolina	$39	
	New Hampshire	$3	Montana	$16	Maryland	$35	New Jersey	$38	25
	Rhode Island	$3	Tennessee	$16	Kansas	$33	Connecticut	$37	26
	South Carolina	$3	Idaho	$15	WEST VIRGINIA	$33	Kansas	$37	
	Texas	$3	Texas	$15	Colorado	$32	New York	$37	
29	Florida	$2	WEST VIRGINIA	$15	Kentucky	$31	Virginia	$37	
	Georgia	$2	Florida	$14	Louisiana	$31	Georgia	$36	30
	Iowa	$2	Rhode Island	$14	Minnesota	$31	Iowa	$36	
	Kentucky	$2	California	$13	Virginia	$31	Michigan	$36	
	Louisiana	$2	New York	$13	Massachusetts	$30	Minnesota	$36	
	Missouri	$2	Washington	$13	North Carolina	$30	Massachusetts	$35	34
	North Carolina	$2	New Hampshire	$12	Oregon	$30	Oregon	$35	
	Oregon	$2	Vermont	$12	Iowa	$27	Utah	$35	
	Tennessee	$2	Iowa	$11	Washington	$27	North Carolina	$34	37
	Vermont	$2	Maine	$11	Connecticut	$26	Colorado	$33	38
	WEST VIRGINIA	$2	Illinois	$10	Missouri	$26	Nevada	$33	
40	Connecticut	$1	Indiana	$10	New York	$26	Tennessee	$33	
	Illinois	$1	Minnesota	$10	Tennessee	$26	Illinois	$32	41
	Indiana	$1	Missouri	$10	Texas	$26	Missouri	$32	
	Massachusetts	$1	Oregon	$10	Michigan	$25	Pennsylvania	$32	
	Michigan	$1	Connecticut	$9	New Jersey	$25	Wisconsin	$32	
	Minnesota	$1	Nebraska	$9	Illinois	$23	Indiana	$31	45
	New Jersey	$1	New Jersey	$9	Pennsylvania	$22	Texas	$30	46
	New York	$1	Ohio	$9	California	$21	Washington	$30	
	Ohio	$1	Pennsylvania	$9	Florida	$21	Ohio	$29	48
	Pennsylvania	$1	Wisconsin	$9	Indiana	$20	California	$27	49
	Wisconsin	$1	Michigan	$8	Ohio	$19	Florida	$26	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961.
"FEDERAL AID TO STATES", 1970, 1980, Department of the Treasury.
"FEDERAL EXPENDITURES BY STATE", 1986, Department of the Treasury.

TABLE 4

FEDERAL AID TO STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS FOR PUBLIC ASSISTANCE, PER CAPITA
1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985

Rank	State	1960	State	1970	State	1980	State	1985	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$11	U.S. Avg.	$57	U.S. Avg.	$121	U.S. Avg.	$123	
1	Louisiana	$32	California	$93	Alaska	$246	Alaska	$213	1
	Oklahoma	$32	Mississippi	$88	Rhode Island	$178	South Dakota	$200	2
3	Colorado	$20	Oklahoma	$84	New York	$176	Vermont	$172	3
	Missouri	$20	New York	$83	Michigan	$164	New York	$169	4
5	Alabama	$19	New Mexico	$79	Massachusetts	$161	Michigan	$161	5
	Arkansas	$19	Alaska	$78	Mississippi	$157	Wisconsin	$147	6
7	Mississippi	$17	Louisiana	$78	Vermont	$150	Maine	$145	7
8	Georgia	$16	Arkansas	$73	Delaware	$148	Mississippi	$143	8
	New Mexico	$16	Alabama	$72	New Jersey	$146	California	$142	9
10	Kentucky	$15	Massachusetts	$72	California	$144	New Hampshire	$141	10
	Maine	$15	Kentucky	$69	Oregon	$142	New Mexico	$141	
	WEST VIRGINIA	$15	WEST VIRGINIA	$68	Maine	$136	Rhode Island	$140	12
13	California	$14	Vermont	$67	Pennsylvania	$136	Montana	$137	13
14	Washington	$13	Georgia	$62	Hawaii	$133	North Dakota	$134	14
15	Arizona	$12	Rhode Island	$62	Washington	$133	Minnesota	$130	15
	Florida	$12	Colorado	$60	Maryland	$131	Massachusetts	$129	16
	Massachusetts	$12	Maine	$57	Montana	$129	WEST VIRGINIA	$124	17
	South Dakota	$12	Washington	$57	Illinois	$128	Kentucky	$123	18
	Texas	$12	Tennessee	$55	Wisconsin	$127	Louisiana	$122	19
	Vermont	$12	Utah	$53	South Dakota	$126	Pennsylvania	$122	
21	Kansas	$11	Missouri	$52	New Mexico	$125	Hawaii	$121	21
	North Carolina	$11	South Carolina	$52	Kentucky	$123	Illinois	$121	
	Rhode Island	$11	Minnesota	$51	Connecticut	$122	Ohio	$121	
	Tennessee	$11	North Dakota	$51	Alabama	$121	Washington	$120	24
25	Idaho	$10	Pennsylvania	$51	WEST VIRGINIA	$119	New Jersey	$114	25
	Iowa	$10	South Dakota	$51	Minnesota	$117	Connecticut	$113	26
	Minnesota	$10	Hawaii	$50	Ohio	$115	Delaware	$112	27
	North Dakota	$10	Texas	$50	Missouri	$113	Georgia	$111	28
	Utah	$10	Arizona	$49	Idaho	$109	Arizona	$109	29
30	Montana	$9	Montana	$48	Arkansas	$107	Oregon	$109	
	Nebraska	$9	Wisconsin	$48	Colorado	$107	Maryland	$107	31
	Oregon	$9	Maryland	$47	Louisiana	$107	Oklahoma	$107	
33	Alaska	$8	Michigan	$46	Tennessee	$104	South Carolina	$107	
	Illinois	$8	North Carolina	$46	Iowa	$103	North Carolina	$106	34
	Nevada	$8	Connecticut	$45	Georgia	$102	Iowa	$105	35
	New York	$8	Illinois	$45	Nevada	$97	Tennessee	$102	36
	Ohio	$8	Oregon	$45	Florida	$96	Missouri	$101	37
	South Carolina	$8	Nevada	$44	South Carolina	$96	Arkansas	$99	38
	Wyoming	$8	Kansas	$43	Kansas	$95	Wyoming	$99	
40	Michigan	$7	New Jersey	$42	North Carolina	$95	Utah	$98	40
	New Hampshire	$7	Idaho	$39	North Dakota	$95	Nebraska	$97	41
	Pennsylvania	$7	Nebraska	$39	Utah	$95	Idaho	$95	42
	Wisconsin	$7	Wyoming	$37	Oklahoma	$94	Alabama	$93	43
44	Connecticut	$6	Ohio	$36	Indiana	$91	Indiana	$90	44
45	Hawaii	$5	Iowa	$35	Virginia	$91	Kansas	$90	
	Indiana	$5	Delaware	$34	Arizona	$90	Colorado	$86	46
	Maryland	$5	Florida	$33	New Hampshire	$85	Virginia	$86	
48	Delaware	$4	Virginia	$32	Nebraska	$84	Nevada	$82	48
	New Jersey	$4	New Hampshire	$31	Wyoming	$79	Florida	$80	49
	Virginia	$4	Indiana	$25	Texas	$77	Texas	$77	50

Source: STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, 1961.
"FEDERAL AID TO STATES", 1970, 1980, Department of the Treasury.
"FEDERAL EXPENDITURES BY STATE", 1985, Department of the Treasury.

TABLE 5

PER CAPITA FEDERAL GRANTS TO STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS FOR HIGHWAY TRUST FUND, BY STATE 1970, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1970	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$21.15	U.S. Avg.	$38.87	U.S. Avg.	$57.06	
1	Alaska	$128.43	Alaska	$243.56	Alaska	$240.40	1
2	Wyoming	$104.19	South Dakota	$192.31	Wyoming	$188.70	2
3	Montana	$87.06	Montana	$163.84	Montana	$160.74	3
4	Nevada	$68.09	Wyoming	$110.00	WEST VIRGINIA	$121.88	4
5	Utah	$64.37	Nevada	$103.46	Nevada	$121.13	5
6	Vermont	$63.45	WEST VIRGINIA	$93.65	North Dakota	$117.59	6
7	South Dakota	$54.54	North Dakota	$87.29	South Dakota	$113.66	7
8	New Mexico	$53.27	Utah	$83.83	Utah	$113.25	8
9	WEST VIRGINIA	$48.29	Hawaii	$66.98	Vermont	$111.24	9
10	Idaho	$46.78	Washington	$64.27	Idaho	$95.53	10
11	Hawaii	$42.91	Arkansas	$63.34	Nebraska	$82.90	11
12	North Dakota	$38.28	Idaho	$63.32	Rhode Island	$82.50	12
13	Arizona	$37.55	Kansas	$61.10	Kansas	$80.11	13
14	Oregon	$31.35	Vermont	$61.02	Washington	$78.76	14
15	Louisiana	$29.66	Virginia	$58.74	New Mexico	$78.20	15
16	Rhode Island	$29.20	New Mexico	$57.16	Delaware	$77.32	16
17	Minnesota	$27.60	Maryland	$56.42	Arizona	$74.28	17
18	New Hampshire	$26.81	Oregon	$55.08	Alabama	$71.12	18
19	Washington	$26.20	Delaware	$54.54	Colorado	$70.65	19
20	Colorado	$25.66	Arizona	$53.09	Minnesota	$70.50	20
21	Mississippi	$25.33	Colorado	$50.03	Mississippi	$68.64	21
	Nebraska	$25.33	Georgia	$46.71	Pennsylvania	$67.48	22
23	California	$24.81	Minnesota	$45.99	Missouri	$67.08	23
24	Kentucky	$24.24	Iowa	$45.10	Oregon	$66.28	24
25	Alabama	$22.78	Alabama	$44.89	Louisiana	$66.27	25
26	Virginia	$22.46	Nebraska	$44.45	Arkansas	$66.23	26
27	Tennessee	$22.45	Kentucky	$44.40	Georgia	$64.98	27
28	Missouri	$22.21	Tennessee	$44.40	Maryland	$63.84	28
29	Kansas	$22.01	Missouri	$43.77	Tennessee	$62.52	29
30	Iowa	$22.00	Illinois	$43.44	Virginia	$61.93	30
31	Arkansas	$21.68	Florida	$41.70	Kentucky	$61.72	31
32	Ohio	$21.29	New Hampshire	$38.91	Iowa	$61.57	32
33	Oklahoma	$21.18	Maine	$38.43	Connecticut	$59.44	33
34	Connecticut	$20.96	North Carolina	$38.14	New Hampshire	$57.58	34
35	Maine	$20.42	Louisiana	$37.59	Texas	$55.84	35
36	Texas	$19.87	Texas	$36.33	Maine	$55.58	36
37	Indiana	$19.00	Wisconsin	$35.83	Oklahoma	$53.12	37
38	Pennsylvania	$18.61	Oklahoma	$33.41	Illinois	$50.15	38
39	Delaware	$18.30	New York	$31.58	Hawaii	$49.44	39
40	Michigan	$17.52	Mississippi	$31.50	Oklahoma	$46.31	40
41	Illinois	$16.51	Indiana	$29.55	Wisconsin	$43.44	41
42	Massachusetts	$16.40	South Carolina	$28.89	Michigan	$43.42	42
43	Maryland	$15.81	Massachusetts	$28.80	South Carolina	$41.73	43
44	New Jersey	$15.09	Michigan	$26.72	North Carolina	$41.70	44
45	Georgia	$13.16	Connecticut	$26.53	New Jersey	$38.68	45
46	New York	$12.76	Rhode Island	$25.07	Florida	$38.49	46
47	South Carolina	$12.28	Ohio	$22.77	New York	$37.87	47
48	North Carolina	$10.37	New Jersey	$22.61	Indiana	$33.85	48
49	Florida	$9.88	California	$20.42	California	$31.70	49
50	Wisconsin	$9.20	Pennsylvania	$19.64	Massachusetts	$28.28	50

Source: FEDERAL AID TO STATES, 1970 and 1980, U.S. Department of the Treasury.
FEDERAL EXPENDITURES BY STATE, 1986, U.S. Department of the Treasury.

TABLE 6

FEDERAL AID TO STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS FOR GENERAL REVENUE SHARING, PER CAPITA
1974, 1980 and 1986

Rank	State	1974	State	1980	State	1986	Rank
	U.S. Avg.	$29	U.S. Avg.	$30	U.S. Avg.	$21	
1	Mississippi	$43	Alaska	$56	Alaska	$39	1
2	North Dakota	$40	New York	$43	Wyoming	$38	2
	South Dakota	$40	Vermont	$40	New York	$29	3
4	Louisiana	$37	Mississippi	$38	Montana	$27	4
	New York	$37	Massachusetts	$37	Utah	$27	
	Vermont	$37	Maine	$36	WEST VIRGINIA	$27	
7	Maine	$36	Delaware	$35	Maine	$26	7
8	New Mexico	$35	Hawaii	$34	Mississippi	$26	
9	Wisconsin	$34	Montana	$34	New Mexico	$25	9
10	Massachusetts	$33	South Dakota	$34	Wisconsin	$25	
	WEST VIRGINIA	$33	Wisconsin	$34	Vermont	$25	
12	Delaware	$32	California	$33	Michigan	$24	12
	Hawaii	$32	Louisiana	$33	Massachusetts	$24	
	Idaho	$32	Minnesota	$33	Minnesota	$24	
	Montana	$32	Maryland	$32	South Dakota	$23	15
	Wyoming	$32	Michigan	$32	Oregon	$23	
17	California	$31	New Jersey	$31	Delaware	$23	
	Minnesota	$31	New Mexico	$31	Hawaii	$23	
	Utah	$31	Rhode Island	$31	Rhode Island	$23	
20	Arkansas	$30	WEST VIRGINIA	$31	South Carolina	$22	20
	Iowa	$30	Arizona	$30	Iowa	$22	
	Kentucky	$30	Arkansas	$30	Idaho	$22	
	South Carolina	$30	Illinois	$30	Kentucky	$22	
24	Alabama	$29	Kentucky	$30	Arkansas	$22	
	Arizona	$29	North Dakota	$30	Maryland	$22	
	Maryland	$29	Wyoming	$30	North Dakota	$22	
	Nebraska	$29	Iowa	$29	California	$22	
	North Carolina	$29	Nebraska	$29	New Jersey	$21	28
	Rhode Island	$29	North Carolina	$29	Alabama	$21	
30	Illinois	$28	Oregon	$29	Louisiana	$21	
	Michigan	$28	South Carolina	$29	Nebraska	$21	
	Tennessee	$28	Utah	$29	North Carolina	$21	
33	Pennsylvania	$27	Alabama	$28	Pennsylvania	$21	
34	Colorado	$26	Connecticut	$28	Illinois	$20	34
	Iowa	$26	Georgia	$28	Ohio	$20	
	Kansas	$26	Pennsylvania	$28	Arizona	$20	
	New Jersey	$26	Tennessee	$28	Oklahoma	$19	37
	Oregon	$26	Idaho	$27	Georgia	$19	
39	Connecticut	$25	Colorado	$26	Washington	$19	
	Oklahoma	$25	Ohio	$26	Virginia	$19	
	Washington	$25	Virginia	$26	Colorado	$19	
42	Alaska	$24	Indiana	$25	Tennessee	$19	
	Indiana	$24	Kansas	$25	Connecticut	$19	
	Missouri	$24	Missouri	$25	Indiana	$18	44
	Nevada	$24	New Hampshire	$25	Kansas	$18	
	New Hampshire	$24	Oklahoma	$25	Missouri	$17	46
	Texas	$24	Texas	$23	Nevada	$17	
	Virginia	$24	Washington	$23	Texas	$16	48
49	Florida	$22	Nevada	$22	Florida	$16	
	Ohio	$22	Florida	$21	New Hampshire	$15	50

Source: FEDERAL AID TO STATES, Fiscal Years 1974 and 1980, Department of the Treasury.
FEDERAL EXPENDITURES BY STATE, 1986, U.S. Department of the Treasury.

Such subjectivity is especially visible in a priori intrinsic worth approaches. Gender biases can enter at any number of points: in the choice and weighting factors to be compensated, in their application to a given job, and in the standards for determining exemptions. How much weight should evaluators accord to particular skills and working conditions? By what criteria should skill be determined?

Some of the difficulties became obvious in one reevaluation study for salaried New York public employees. That study concluded that acquired (and hence compensable) abilities were necessary for zoo keepers in charge of baby animals, but that only innate (and hence noncompensable) abilities were necessary for day care attendants responsible for human infants (Lauter, 1984). To critics, the fuzziness surrounding concepts of job value becomes particularly troubling if comparable worth becomes a major litigation tool in securing occupational equality. Experts using different evaluation systems often come up with quite different rankings for the same job. For courts to preside over battles among experts with no principled basis for choosing between them could impose substantial uncertainties, inconsistencies, and legal costs.

Moreover, to the extent that job reevaluation calls for major upward adjustments in women's salaries, opponents raise further objections. Business leaders typically argue that comparable worth will increase inefficiency and unemployment, decrease competitiveness with foreign manufacturers, encourage women to remain in predominantly female-dominated occupations, and redistribute limited salary resources in favor of white middle-class women at the expense of lower-class minority men (Gold, 1983; Fishel and Lazear, 1986; Weiler, 1986).

However, both the magnitude and the distribution of such adverse consequences are open to question. Criticism of the "subjectivity" of comparable worth procedures tends to ignore the biases reflected in current wage structures, biases that already distort responses to labor supply and demand. Subjectivity is what we now have; the fact that it is embedded in existing market dynamics does not render it morally just or economically essential. Estimates of the aggregate price of pay equity have ranged between $2 billion and $150 billion, and projections of efficiency and gross national product losses reflect similar variations (Remick and Steinberg, 1984).

On the whole, available research suggests that the costs of pay equity have often been overestimated and the potential benefits underestimated. While comprehensive long-term data are lacking, it does not appear that the growing number of employers here and abroad who have implemented comparable worth reforms have triggered the kinds of inflation, inefficiency, unemployment, or regressive distributional consequences that pay equity opponents generally claim. The typical costs of American reforms, when phased in over a number of years, have been around five to 10 percent of employers' total wage rates (Hartmann, 1987).

Moreover, the same job-evaluation procedures that have exposed evidence of gender bias often have revealed evidence of racial bias as well, and the resulting adjustments have benefited groups disadvantaged on both counts (National Committee on Pay Equity, 1987; Scales-Trent, 1984). Although evidence concerning class is more mixed, some broad-scale comparable worth initiatives have suggested that job evaluation procedures are more likely to reveal overcompensation in male-dominated white collar, not blue collar, jobs (Clauss, 1986). Whatever short-term costs some workers sustain as a result of job reevaluations must also be measured against the potential long-term gains of making compensation criteria explicit and a subject for collective bargaining and organizing strategies.

Much of the objection to pay equity could be minimized if implementation occurred gradually, with some sensitivity to its costs and to the respective competencies of various decisionmakers: courts, legislatures, and participants in collective bargaining. It is well within judges' capabilities and statutory authority to enforce principles of relative worth and to hold employers accountable for salary discrimination that cannot be justified by their own evaluation criteria. Issues of intrinsic worth—that is, judgments about what criteria are most important and how those judgments should be made—can be addressed primarily through political and collective bargaining processes.

Enough public and private sector initiatives are now in place to allow a more comprehensive review of different job reevaluation procedures and their effects on unemployment, inflation, turnover, occupational segregation, worker satisfaction, and income distribution. If adverse consequences of pay equity have emerged, further analysis of policies that might best cushion such effects, such as job retraining, affirmative action, and expanded unemployment compensation, is needed. The research agenda should also explore broader questions surrounding markets, merit, and money. How much consensus is there concerning the relative importance of factors that influence compensation? How closely do public attitudes about what salaries should be correspond to what salaries actually are? What evaluation procedures are most likely to seem fair to the greatest number of constituencies?

As with affirmative action, the most substantial risks of comparable worth are not those that conservatives invoke.

The danger is less that it will prove too radical than that it will not prove radical enough. One disquieting possibility is that some narrow vision of pay equity will prevail, and that concerns about gender will overshadow concerns about race, class, and ethnicity. Narrow incremental reform strategies could result in a modified compensation hierarchy under which the haves still come out far ahead but with more women among them. A related concern is that short-term political objectives could obscure broader normative issues. By cloaking job evaluation with a mantle of seemingly "scientific" objectivity, comparable worth adjustments could insulate wage hierarchies from more searching review.

A more hopeful alternative is that pay equity initiatives will focus attention on fundamental questions not only of gender equality but of social priorities. How should various job and worker attributes be rewarded and how much differentiation across salary levels is appropriate? Are we comfortable with a society that pays more for jobs such as parking attendant than for those such as child care attendant, whatever their male/female composition? Exploring the dynamics of comparable worth can enrich our understanding of class and gender inequalities and of the strategies best able to reduce them.

Inspired by a social vision that emphasizes collective responsibility rather than individual competition, job reevaluation could become a strategy for narrowing economic inequality. It could also prompt a reassessment of paid and unpaid work traditionally done by women. From that vantage, comparable worth is potentially a radical concept, but not in the sense most critics claim. It need not invite the kind of centralized planning reflected in current state-run economies, which have scarcely dispensed with wage hierarchies or ensured gender equality. Rather, pay equity initiatives could help spark a rethinking of the scope of inequality and the ideologies that sustain it.

Employment Policy and Structural Change

If occupational equity is to become a serious national commitment, expressed in social policy as well as in political rhetoric, an array of strategies extending beyond antidiscrimination, affirmative action, or comparable worth mandates is needed. Women's subordinate labor force status is a function of various factors, including sex-role socialization, workplace structures, and domestic constraints. Effective policy responses will require an equally varied set of public and private sector initiatives and a more systematic attempt to assess their relative success.

Although law has limited influence on socialization processes, it could play a more constructive role. Government-funded education, counseling, and vocational and job training programs often affect occupational choices. Yet despite formal mandates of gender equality, such programs have often served more to perpetuate than to counteract sex-role stereotypes.

Vocational education remains highly gender segregated, as do placements under government-sponsored job training programs (Reskin and Hartmann, 1986; Roos and Reskin, 1984). Efforts to improve women's math and science skills and to interest men in traditionally female vocations have been at best sporadic. Too few financial incentives have been available to private employers for programs that challenge occupational segregation through recruitment, training, counseling, and restructured promotion ladders that bridge male- and female-dominated job sectors. All of these areas require greater governmental resources and more systematic study (Reskin and Hartmann, 1986).

Finally, and perhaps most fundamentally, employment-related issues must be conceived as part of a broader political agenda. Men's and women's positions in the labor market are affected by a wide array of public policies concerning education, housing, welfare, tax structure, and social services. Too many of these policies reflect outmoded assumptions about women's secondary labor force status; too few address the structural problems that still confine many women to that role. For almost a century some feminists have sought programs that were better designed to accommodate public and private life: cooperative residential housing, child care and homemaker services, and integrated urban planning sensitive to the needs of single parents and dual-career couples. Current demographic trends have invested such policies with new urgency, not only to promote gender equality in this generation, but to provide decent environments for the next.

Women in Brief

Women and Contingent Work

ELIZABETH CONWAY

TEMPORARY, PART-TIME, AND CONTRACT work has a long history in the American labor market, particularly among women workers. Economic uncertainty and changing business practices during the past decade have made these employment patterns increasingly common. Workers on short schedules or under contract now make up one-quarter to one-third of the labor force, and the vast majority of those workers are female.

Economists often use the term "contingent" worker to describe temporary and contract personnel, as well as most part-time and part-year employees. The term refers to the weak bond that exists between these individuals and their employers, often manifested in a lack of job security or employee benefits. Counting the contingent workforce is a difficult task because employment categories overlap, job turnover is high, and labor force statistics do not account for the informality of some work relationships. Admittedly inexact estimates put the number between 29 and 35 million workers and suggest that the contingent workforce has grown more rapidly than the labor force as a whole during the 1980s (Belous, 1989).

Part-time and part-year workers make up the majority of the contingent workforce. In 1987, an average of 19.5 million people worked part time each week, defined by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) as less than 35 hours per week; 23

million people worked full time for less than a full year. A short schedule does not necessarily consign the person who holds it to the contingent workforce—many teachers, for example, work for only nine months of the year yet receive the same job security and benefits as full-year workers, and some "permanent part-time" workers are treated similarly. A disproportionate number, however, report far lower compensation and less stable working conditions than their counterparts who work full time all year.

Individuals working as temporaries or on contract are contingent workers by nature of their employment arrangements, which explicitly place them outside of the typical employer-employee relationship. Statistics on these workers are not very reliable. The federal government collects data on the temporary help service industry (e.g., Kelly, Manpower, and other suppliers of temporary help), but it does not record the number of temporary workers hired directly by employers. People who take summer or holiday jobs, or who simply fill in for absent employees, no doubt far exceed the 900,000 workers employed as agency temporaries on any given work day.

A great deal of contract work is concentrated in self-employment and the business services industry. An unknown number of the nation's 8.5 million nonagricultural self-employed individuals work as consultants, independent contractors, or subcontractors, selling their services to other individuals or firms. The business services industry, which employs some five million workers, also provides services to other businesses on a contract basis. Jobs in this industry range from janitorial work to trucking to highly skilled computer work. Although many workers in this industry are employees of business services companies, they work under contracts between their own employers and other firms.

The contingent workforce has historically been predominantly female. While men generally required more stable employment, informal work arrangements allowed women to balance their family responsibilities with a role in the market economy. Today, most working women hold permanent, full-time jobs, but women still comprise a majority of contingent workers. In 1987, two-thirds of part-timers and agency temporaries were women. Married women, in particular, frequently turn to part-time or part-year work during their childrearing years.

Contingent work, which is characterized by a lack of job security and low levels of compensation, is concentrated in low-wage service and manufacturing jobs, although different types of contingent work are found in different industries and occupations. Three-quarters of part-time jobs are in sales, clerical, service, and unskilled labor occupations, while only one-sixth are in managerial, professional, and technical fields. Just over half of all agency temporaries work in administrative support positions, and another one-fourth serve as operators, fabricators, or laborers.

Changes in the collection of government statistics make it impossible to analyze the growth of part-time professional employment over the past 10 or 20 years, but anecdotal evidence suggests that it is gradually becoming more common. Temporary help service agencies now hire nurses, accountants, and other professionals, although executives, professionals, and technical workers still account for less than 10 percent of all such temporary employment (Williams, 1989).

Pay and benefits for contingent workers are generally low. Part-time workers make up less than one-sixth of the labor force but account for two-thirds of those receiving minimum and subminimum wages. In 1988, part-time workers had a median wage of $4.68, compared with $7.70 for full-time workers. The concentration of part-timers in low-wage service jobs, as well as the comparative youth and short employment histories of the workers, accounts for much of the wage gap. But a study conducted in the late 1970s found that part-time workers received significantly lower wages even after controlling for these and other important characteristics (Owen, 1978).

Agency temporaries, as a rule, receive higher wages than part-time workers. A recent study found 1987 average hourly wages ranging from $3.72 for construction workers to $24.74 for engineers. Average wages in the administrative support occupations, where most female temporaries work, ranged from $4.74 for messengers to $9.46 for word processors (Williams, 1989). Comparable figures for temporary workers hired directly by employers are not available.

Compensation includes far more than wages. According to the BLS, voluntarily provided benefits (e.g., health insurance, pensions, vacation pay) comprised nearly 20 percent of compensation for an average worker in 1988. In contrast to full-time and permanent workers, however, contingent workers rarely receive benefits other than those required by law. Data from the Census Bureau's Current Population Survey show that only one-quarter of agency temporaries and less than one-third of part-time workers receive health insurance benefits through employment, compared with more than three-quarters of full-time, full-year workers. Similarly, less than 20 percent of part-time workers, but more than one-half of full-time, full-year workers participate in employer pension plans.

Contingent workers often obtain health insurance coverage through a parent's or a spouse's policy, by purchasing individual coverage, or by qualifying for Medicare or Medicaid. Still, more than 20 percent of all part-time workers have no health insurance coverage of any kind (Levitan and Conway, 1988).

Two groups of contingent workers—women moonlighters and independent contractors—are often particularly vulnerable to the absence of benefits. Moonlighting, traditionally undertaken by men with full-time work, is no longer a male preserve. The most recent data indicate that 4.7 percent of working women and 5.9 percent of working men hold second jobs (Stinson, 1986). Men who moonlight generally supplement full-time employment with part-time or second full-time jobs. Almost half of all women who moonlight, however, work at multiple part-time jobs. Although on average they work well over 40 hours per week, these women are treated as part-timers and often receive low wages and inadequate benefits.

Contract workers generally do not receive health or pension benefits from an employer, and the employer does not contribute payroll taxes on their behalf. Nonetheless, a significant number of women workers choose this arrangement because consulting or freelancing gives them control over the nature and conditions of their work. Employers also may prefer this arrangement because it enables them to obtain workers with special skills or to meet demand during busy periods. Some employers have taken this practice one step further, hiring as "independent contractors" workers who are neither independent nor on contract, although controversy exists regarding the extent of this practice (Christensen, 1988). An employee hired under such fraudulent arrangements not only forfeits current benefits but may also receive lower social security and pension benefits later in life.

The growth of dual earner and single-parent families and other social changes should drive more workers into the contingent workforce, but the opposite appears to be happening. The Bureau of Labor Statistics differentiates between voluntary and involuntary part-time workers, a useful distinction when looking at the contingent workforce. Voluntary part-timers are those who work short schedules for noneconomic reasons, generally because they do not want or cannot accept full-time employment. Involuntary part-timers would rather be working full time but are employed part time for a variety of economic reasons, primarily the inability to find full-time employment. In 1988, the labor force included an average of 14 million voluntary and five million involuntary part-time workers; 54 percent of the involuntary part-time workers were women. As women entered the labor force during the 1970s and sought work that did not conflict with homemaking responsibilities, the number of voluntary part-time workers increased greatly. During the 1980s this growth dropped off, as women increasingly accepted full-time jobs.

Involuntary part-time employment, which is a sort of partial unemployment, often foreshadows rising unemployment as employers reduce workers' hours before resorting to layoffs during economic downturn, and then restore full-time hours during economic recovery. Since the mid-1970s, however, involuntary part-time work has stabilized at higher rates during each recovery. After reaching a record high of 6.5 percent of all workers in 1982, it declined somewhat, but it still hovers around five percent, historically high for a recovery.

A most disturbing trend is a shift in the makeup of the involuntary part-time workforce. Until recently, the bulk of this group worked part-time because of slack work, usually a temporary condition. During the recession years of the early

1980s, the number of people affected by slack work increased but not as rapidly as the number unable to find full-time employment. This latter group grew from 38 percent of all involuntary part time workers in 1980 to 51 percent in 1984. Although their number has fallen during the recovery, people unable to find a full-time job still account for half of all involuntary part-timers.

Slack work primarily affects white men, while the inability to find full-time employment disproportionately affects women, minorities, teenagers, and persons without high school diplomas. Persons on reduced schedules because of slack work usually return to full-time status at their present job, but those unable to find full-time positions must change jobs to obtain full-time status. Thus, these workers remain on part-time schedules for longer periods of time than other people who work part time involuntarily, and experience higher levels of poverty and medical indigence (Levitan and Conway, 1988).

The factors that make alternatives to full-time, full-year work attractive to employers and to workers are different and often in conflict with one another. Employers generally look to the bottom line, attempting to reduce labor costs as far as possible, while workers seek to balance employment demands with other responsibilities and/or interests. In such an atmosphere, workers with rare or valuable skills may be able to negotiate acceptable short-time schedules, and secondary wage earners may value time more than career mobility or income and so find part-time work attractive. But many Americans simply cannot afford to work at contingent jobs under current conditions.

Employers traditionally viewed the contingent labor force as secondary earners working for "pin money." As fewer workers fall into this category, but as these jobs continue to become more prevalent, policymakers are beginning to address important issues associated with part-time and temporary jobs. Initiatives by individuals employers, state and federal governments, and advocacy groups offer hope for improved conditions for contingent workers.

The Provident Bank of Cincinnati, for example, originated a program known as "peak time." Part-time tellers at the bank receive higher hourly wages than their full-time counterparts, with the highest hourly pay going to tellers with the fewest or the least convenient hours (Bureau of National Affairs, 1986). Peak-time policies at the Provident Bank, as tends to be the case elsewhere, do not include fringe benefits, a factor that makes these jobs unacceptable for most primary earners. Improving the wages of contingent workers nonetheless represents an important step forward.

Other employers offer part-time or job-sharing options that include prorated wages and benefits. Under these policies, employers apply the same wage and benefit scales used for full-time workers, allotting them proportionally to hours worked. A worker employed half time, for example, would receive half the vacation time available to a full-time worker. The employer also pays a prorated portion of the premiums for insurance, pension, and other benefits, and the employee pays the remainder. The Association of Part-Time Professionals, an advocacy group, has taken a leading role in support of prorated benefits. Congresswoman Patricia Schroeder introduced a bill that would require employers to provide prorated health and pension coverage to part-time workers if they cover their full-time employees.

Congress included a section in the Tax Reform Act of 1986 that will force some employers to provide more benefits to their part-time workers. Under the new rule, employers who receive tax breaks for offering health, pension, and other fringe benefits will have to prove that higher-paid employees do not receive a disproportionate share of the benefits. Employers who deny benefits to a large number of part-time workers will face significant tax penalties as a result.

In 1987, the State of New Hampshire passed a law designed to alleviate insurance company discrimination against part-time workers. The law does not require employers to provide insurance benefits to part-time workers—states are prohibited from passing such laws—but it requires insurers to include part-timers in group policies when requested to do so.

Part-time, temporary, and other contingent workers also would benefit from many of the initiatives proposed for low-income workers in general. An increase in the minimum wage, efforts to extend health insurance to the uninsured, and tax breaks for low-wage earners are examples of such proposals. Perhaps the most fortuitous development of all would be the labor shortage that may emerge as a result of birth rates that have been falling since the 1960s. Such a shortage, if it materializes, could drive compensation to higher levels and enable more workers to negotiate better wage and hour packages with their employers.

In this time of tension between work and family demands, alternatives to full-time permanent jobs are more critical than ever, especially to women workers. A small but growing number of innovative workers, employers, and government bodies are attempting to create working arrangements that meet the needs of both workers and employers. These pioneers may point the way to improved treatment for all short-schedule or contingent workers.

Women in Medical School

JANET BICKEL

In few areas have women's changing educational aspirations and opportunities been more apparent than in the field of medicine. Barriers that women historically encountered in attempting to enter medical schools have for the most part been eliminated, and the results have been impressive. In 1985-86, women were awarded nearly one-third of all medical degrees, up from just over 10 percent in the early 1970s. As of 1988, there were over 100,000 female physicians, or more than double the number in 1975. Further inroads into this traditionally male occupation can be expected if the proportion of women gaining admission to medical schools continues to rise.

Although a steady increase in women's representation among entering medical students actually began in the 1920s, progress was relatively slow until much later in the century. The largest leap in the number of female medical school applicants occurred during the first half of the 1970s, when their numbers nearly quadrupled, rising from under 2,300 to just over 8,700. Women were less than nine percent of the applicant pool in 1970; within five years, they were over 20 percent. By 1988, more than 10,000 women—almost 40 percent of the total—were applying to medical school.

Several forces were at work to explain this increase. An overall change in women's aspirations was engendered by the feminist movement. In addition, the enactment of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, coupled with the commitment of individual medical schools to grant equal opportunity for women, opened up the nation's medical classrooms to women.

Although women have been less likely than men to apply to medical school, in most years acceptance rates for women have compared favorably to those of men. In fact, throughout much of the 1970s, women were somewhat more likely than men to be accepted. For example, in 1973, 40 percent of the female medical school applicants, but only 35 percent of the male applicants, were accepted. Since 1978, acceptance rates for men have inched ahead.

The majority—six out of 10—of medical school applicants are relatively young, i.e., under 23, and differences by sex are minor. Acceptance rates are higher for the younger applicants, and younger male applicants are more likely to be accepted than younger females are. However, in the "upper" ages, the acceptance rate for women is greater. In 1988, for example, 34 percent of the female applicants over the age of 38 were accepted into medical school; the comparable figure for male applicants was 27 percent.

Overall figures obscure wide variations among medical schools. According to data from the *Medical School Admission Requirements 1990-91* (Association of American Medical Colleges, 1989), the proportion of new students who are women ranges from 57 percent at the Medical College of Pennsylvania to 17 percent at the University of Utah. Women comprise less than 25 percent of new students at only two of the nation's 127 medical schools and more than 40 percent of the new students at 26 schools.

The sharp increase in acceptance rates (from about one-third to three-fifths) for male and female applicants reflects the fact that the total number of applicants has declined by over 30 percent in the past 15 years. In 1973, more than 40,000 hopefuls applied to medical school, but by 1988, there were slightly more than 26,700 applicants. All other things being equal, as an applicant pool shrinks, the probability of being accepted increases. The shrinking applicant pool is due to the fact that the number of men applying to medical schools is about half of what it was in the mid-1970s (see Table 25 in the statistical appendix to this book). Slightly fewer women are applying to medical school today than was the case from about 1980 to 1985, but the proportion of applicants who are female continues to climb.

There is considerable speculation over the reasons for the steady decline in the overall number of applications to medical school, which started 10 years before the country began experiencing a decline in the number of 22-year-old men. Currently, the proportion of male college students applying to medical schools is approaching four percent, which is lower than at any time since 1960. Women medical school applicants as a percentage of all college graduates rose above two percent for the first time in 1974; since then, that figure has remained fairly stable.

Clearly, many factors influence decisions about fields of study in general and medicine in particular. Not surprisingly, some potential male candidates, as well as some female candidates, are discouraged from pursuing medical careers by the well-publicized oversupply of specialists, high malpractice premiums, an increase in government regulations, high tuition costs, and the long, grueling internship and residency requirements needed to complete training. However, many women who at one time would have entered teaching or nursing now find becoming a doctor very attractive, despite those conditions that make it less attractive to some men.

Any guess about whether or when the proportion of medical school applicants who are women will level off would be just that—a guess. But as long as women's academic credentials continue to equal those of men, medical schools are likely to continue to welcome their applications.

Analyses of applicants' grade point averages (GPAs) indicate that women's overall college GPA is slightly above that of men, while their science average is slightly below. Women score higher on the reading skills subtest of the Medical College Admission Test (MCAT); men do better when it comes to biology, chemistry, physics, science problems, and quantitative skills (Tudor, 1988).

However, a recent study at a midwestern medical school suggests extra caution in interpreting women's GPAs and MCAT scores (Calkins, Arnold, and Willoughby, 1987). For men, cognitive characteristics, such as high school class rank, were the best predictors of clerkship grades and internship performance; for women, noncognitive characteristics, e.g., psychosocial qualities, were the best predictors. These noncognitive qualities were rated from letters of recommendation, the medical school interview, and previous work experience in health care.

Medical School Performance

Once women have enrolled in medical school, their academic performance is virtually indistinguishable from men's. They tend to outperform men in two areas—obstetrics/gynecology and patient interviewing skills (see Plauche and Miller, 1986; Preven et al., 1986; Weinberg and Rooney, 1973). However, studies also show that women medical students experience more depression and anxiety than men do (Lloyd and Gartell, 1981), and while medical training places a strain on the personal lives of both sexes, more women than men report that personal relationships come to an end because of the medical school grind (Clark and Reiker, 1986).

The reasons why women experience more stress are common to professional women in other fields. Fewer same-sex role models, less help at home, and lingering forms of discrimination are the chief culprits. A study of the gender climate at a midwestern medical school found that women students experience relatively little discrimination from patients, nonphysician staff or peers, but that some faculty members still function on the basis of sex-role stereotypes. Interestingly, however, women students perceive that their male classmates experience more gender-based discrimination from patients than they do, especially during clerkships in pediatrics and obstetrics/gynecology (Grant, 1988).

A survey by the Association of American Medical Colleges (AAMC) sheds some light on differences in the way men and women experience medical school. As freshmen, women report less parental support for their decision to study medicine; perhaps reflecting this, only 61 percent of the female students, compared to 70 percent of the males, said they were very confident of their ability to succeed in medical school (Bickel, 1988). Male students also come from somewhat more affluent families. For example, mean parental income is higher among male students ($74,167 vs. $66,627 in 1987), which may partially explain the fact that women arrive at medical school with higher educational debts ($14,462 vs. $10,699). This debt gap continues through medical school, with the result that women who graduated in 1987 had an average debt of $37,400, compared to $34,700 for men. Debt is a greater problem for minorities; among black women, for example, the average debt was $7,000 more than it was for white women in 1987.

Female first-year medical students are more interested than men in the people-oriented and prevention-related aspects of medicine. Forty-three percent of the females and 34 percent of the males rated "working with patients to prevent illness" as the most important physician service. This finding sheds light on seniors' assessment of the adequacy of their medical school instruction. More often than men, women report that medical schools provide insufficient emphasis on patients' socioeconomic and emotional problems, public health, nutrition, and cost containment (ibid.).

Career Choices

Factors in addition to personal goals and aptitudes affect the choice of a particular career within medicine. These include changing predictions of physician supply and specialty needs. Decisions must be made about type of practice (health maintenance organization [HMO], group practice, etc.) and geographic location. Female graduates are somewhat less likely than men to predict that they will enter private practice (53 percent vs. 60 percent of 1987 graduates) and, conversely, are more likely to predict a salaried practice (14 percent vs. 10 percent). They are also slightly more likely to see full-time academic appointments in their futures (30 percent vs. 28 percent). These predictions correspond to existing patterns: female physicians practice more frequently than males in salaried positions in medical schools, clinics, and HMOs; men are more likely to choose office-based practices (Bowman and Gross, 1986). American Medical Association data also confirm that women physicians are playing relatively larger roles in ambulatory care clinics and HMOs. For example, in 1986, 22 percent of all women physicians with HMO contracts were full-time HMO doctors; this was true of only five percent of the men (Emmons, 1988).

When it comes to plans about specialties, male/female differences have changed relatively little in recent years. Women still prefer careers in primary care and obstetrics to a greater extent than men do; men, in contrast, more often prefer surgery. The proportion of both sexes who are interested in internal medicine, family practice, and pediatrics has been declining, but the decline has been steeper among men.

Plans on relocating to a socioeconomically deprived area are more common among graduating women than among men (20 percent vs. 13 percent in 1987). This is one area in which white and black students differ dramatically. Fifty-five percent of the 1987 black male and female graduates—but only 17 percent of white women and 10 percent of white men—intended to work in a deprived area.

Medical School Faculty

Despite the marked increase in the number and proportion of female medical students and physicians throughout the 1970s and 1980s, women are still finding it difficult to assume a proportional role in the administration of medical schools; the next battle might be to play a much more significant role in the running of the nation's medical schools.

The percentage of women medical school graduates joining medical school faculties has consistently exceeded the figure for men. For instance, 14 percent of the women and 10 percent of the men who graduated in 1961 are currently full-time medical school faculty members. Yet as of 1987, women were still only 19 percent of all medical school faculty members (up from 13 percent 20 years earlier). And only 53 per-

"The percentage of women medical school graduates joining medical school faculties has consistently exceeded the figure for men, [although] as of 1987, women were still only 19 percent of all medical school faculty members." One woman who has advanced in academic medicine is Dr. Doris G. Bartuska, professor of medicine and director of the Division of Endocrinology and Metabolism at the Medical College of Pennsylvania.
Courtesy American Medical Women's Association

cent of those women had M.D. degrees; the comparable figure for men was 70 percent.

As the number of women physicians keeps growing, this gender difference will narrow. But other trends, such as the gap remaining between men and women attaining the ranks of associate professor and professor, demand more consideration. Of faculty members holding M.D. degrees who were first appointed in 1976, 12 percent of the men, but only three percent of the women, held the rank of professor 10 years later.

This gap between the advancement of men and women into the upper echelons of academic medicine is the result of several factors, few of which have been systematically investigated. Studies show that women physicians' careers do not build in as sustained a way as men's do (Lorber, 1984) and that the average number of years of promotion to each faculty rank is greater for women (Wallis, Gilder, and Thaler, 1981). Women face particular challenges in the field of research, where productivity is a major prerequisite to academic advancement. They have more difficulty in finding the right sponsor and mentor, and in deciding whether and how to put research above all other goals during a time when patient care and child rearing are also likely to be priorities.

The Future for Women in Medicine

In viewing the increase of women medical students over the last two decades, one arrives at an inevitable question: Will women ever comprise the majority of physicians in the United States? In 1988, women were 20 percent of all physicians, nearly triple the seven percent figure for 1967. Furthermore, over 42 percent of women physicians were under age 35, compared to only about 25 percent of men (American Medical Association, 1987), which suggests that as the physician population ages, it will become increasingly female. On the other hand, males still outnumber female medical students by a good margin, so the answer to the question may depend on such factors as retirement patterns and whether the proportion of women in the medical school applicant pool continues to climb.

Perhaps a question more pertinent than whether women will ever become a majority of the nation's doctors is what an increase in their numbers means to the quality of medical practice. Past comparisons indicate that women physicians work fewer hours per week, see fewer patients per hour, and are more likely to be in part-time practice than men. These differences are beginning to narrow, a fact that may be related more to male physicians working less than to females working more (Bowman and Gross, 1986).

But one possibility is that women see fewer patients because they spend more time with each patient. Moreover, in rating physicians, trained observers say that female physicians are more respectful and egalitarian in their relationships with patients; they interrupt patients less, and they are more likely to engage in therapeutic listening and counseling than male physicians (Arnold, Martin, and Parker, 1988). If women keep bringing these qualities into the practice of medicine, their increasing numbers are clearly good news for patients.

Women in Business

FAITH H. ANDO

WOMEN HAVE BEEN STARTING BUSINESSES in such record numbers in recent years that the proportion of businesses owned by women—which was 25 percent of the 12 million U.S. firms in 1982—may reach 50 percent by the year 2000 (U.S. Congress, 1988). It is therefore time for the American business sector to pay more attention to women business owners and their firms. Who are these women? Why are so many of them opting to become their own bosses? How are their businesses faring? What determines success or failure?

The 1982 Characteristics of Business Owners (CBO), an important data base that is rich in information on more than 100,000 business owners and their firms, provides an answer to some of these and other questions about women business owners. (The CBO is further described in Ando, 1988b and U.S. Bureau of the Census, August 1987.)

According to the Census Bureau, there were 2.9 million women-owned businesses in the United States in 1982, the latest year for which Census data are available. The vast majority—93 percent (or 2.7 million)—were sole proprietorships; nearly five percent (134,000) were women-owned partnerships, and another three percent (89,000) were women-owned subchapter S corporations. The Census Bureau did not collect information on the number of non-subchapter S corporations in 1982. (A subchapter S corporation is a special Internal Revenue Service designation that enables corporations with 25 or fewer shareholders to elect to be taxed as individuals rather than as corporations. This results in certain tax advantages.)[1]

Overall, minority women—who were approximately 20 percent of the total female population in the United States in 1982, but who owned only seven percent of the women-owned firms—are clearly underrepresented among women business owners. Underrepresentation is characteristic of black women, who were 12 percent of the female population in 1982 but only 3.5 percent of women business owners, and Hispanic women, more than six percent of the female population and two percent of the female owners. In contrast, Asian women were 1.7 percent of both the total female population and the female owner population (Ando, 1988b; U.S. Bureau of the Census, December 1983b and January 1988).

Unfortunately, the 1982 CBO provides few insights into the reasons *why* these women decided to go into business for themselves; in fact, scholarly research on this important issue is relatively rare. Nonetheless, it is generally assumed that women who start businesses are motivated by some of the same factors that encourage men to go into business, as well as by some that distinguish them from men.

On the one hand, women—like men—may relish the risks and thrills of starting and managing businesses of their own, of being their own bosses. On the other hand, particular workforce patterns and experiences more common to women (see Barrett, 1987) may also influence women's entrepreneurial decisions. First, women's employment opportunities may be less promising or rewarding than those of men with comparable skills, abilities, and training. Entrepreneurship may be regarded as a means to overcome occupational segregation and/or wage and benefit discrepancies, enabling women to put their talents to better use.

Second, women with primary responsibility for young children may have problems finding acceptable and/or affordable child care. Although there are many disadvantages to working with small children around, entrepreneurship may enable women to adjust the timing or number of work hours per week while meeting child care responsibilities.

Third, many women who reenter the labor force after years of performing unpaid work in the home may find that previous employment skills have atrophied and/or that employers dismiss or diminish the relevance to paid work of homemaking skills. Job opportunities may be limited, so for some of these women, entrepreneurship is a way to capitalize on organizational skills acquired or polished during the years of caring for and managing a home.

The 1982 Characteristics of Business Owners data base is an especially fruitful source of information on the characteristics of women (and men) who have become owners. Analysts can turn to the data base to examine two important issues, namely (1) whether women business owners, regardless of race or ethnicity, resemble one another more than they do men owners of the same race or ethnicity or (2) whether women business owners of a particular racial or ethnic group are more similar to their male counterparts than they are to other women business owners. In other words, when it comes to factors that may have an impact on business success or failure, does sex dominate ethnicity or does ethnicity dominate sex? The answer is by no means clear-cut: in some instances, gender appears to be more important than race or ethnicity (referred to simply as ethnicity in the rest of this chapter), while in others, ethnicity appears to "explain more" than gender.

This chapter looks at Asian, black, Hispanic, and nonminority female business owners. These women are compared to one another and to their male counterparts along a number of dimensions selected because of their prominence in research on minority entrepreneurship (Ando, 1988a).[2] Demographic, socioeconomic, and entrepreneurial characteristics of the owner, as well as access to capital, all play a role in business start-up and performance.

For example, because there are substantial human and financial capital transfers within a marriage (Benham, 1974; Mincer and Polachek, 1974), a married business owner has potential access to a source of human and financial capital for investment that is unavailable to a never-married owner. Thus, other things being equal, a firm belonging to a married owner will do better or outperform a firm owned by someone who has never married.

Most business owners are married, but differences—especially by sex—are apparent. About 72 percent of nonminority female owners—but 85 percent of nonminority male owners—in the CBO survey were married. Regardless of ethnicity, female owners were considerably less likely than their male counterparts to be married (74 percent of Asian women and almost 88 percent of Asian men, nearly 55 percent of black women and 82 percent of black men, 72 percent of Hispanic women and 86 percent of Hispanic men). Thus, when it comes to marital status, sex dominates ethnicity. To the extent that human and financial capital transfers within a marriage have an impact on a firm's performance, these statistics suggest that—all other things being equal—firms owned by women will be outperformed by those owned by men.

Whether a business owner has completed at least one year of college and whether he or she has had any managerial experience in paid employment have been identified as the most important components of an owner's "human capital" determining a minority firm's performance (Ando, 1988a).

Each factor also has an effect on an owner's financial capital. In evaluating credit risk, banks may consider a loan applicant's educational attainment and consider someone with more education the more promising risk. In addition, the higher salaries typically associated with managerial positions may enable potential business owners with that experience to accumulate more net worth than those without it to apply toward the start-up of a firm. (Of course, education and managerial experience are likely to be correlated: employers use education as a device to identify potential managers [Riley, 1979; Spence, 1974; Stiglitz, 1975].)

As for the years of formal education, the CBO survey found that 53 percent of nonminority female *and* male business owners had completed one or more years of college. Gender differences among the three ethnic groups studied were as follows: one or more years of college had been completed by 71 percent of the female Asian business owners and 74 percent of the Asian men, 51 percent of the black women and 44 percent of black men, and 39 percent of both the female and male Hispanic owners. Thus, when analyzing education, ethnicity seems to dominate sex, i.e., each group of women business owners is closer to its comparable group of men business owners than to each other. Insofar as this measure of educational attainment has an impact on business performance, one would expect the businesses of Asians to fare best, followed by those owned by nonminorities, blacks, and then Hispanics.

The picture is different when it comes to previous managerial experience in paid employment, which is less common among women. Forty percent of nonminority female business owners, but 56 percent of their male counterparts, had been employed in a managerial capacity before going into business for themselves. This was true of only 38 percent of Asian women but 51 percent of Asian men, 37 percent of black women and 44 percent of black men, and 32 percent of Hispanic women and 46 percent of Hispanic men.

Thus, when it comes to managerial experience, sex appears to dominate ethnicity. Each group of women business owners is more similar to the other groups of women than to their male counterparts. Again, other things being equal, to the extent that prior managerial experience affects a firm's performance, women-owned firms will be outperformed by those owned by men.

A key question that evolves from the above discussion is, of course, how women-owned businesses actually perform. The CBO contains four measures of a firm's performance, two of which—sales or receipts and firm survival—were analyzed for this chapter.[3]

If receipts are the sole measure of performance, women-owned firms, regardless of the ethnicity of the owner, do not perform as well as those owned by men. For example, 54 percent of the firms owned by nonminority women—but only 37 percent of those owned by nonminority men—had receipts or sales of less than $5,000 in 1982. Sales of less than $5,000 were reported by 47 percent of the Asian female owners and 34 percent of the Asian males owners, 57 percent of black female owners and 43 percent of black males, and 48 percent of Hispanic females and 31 percent of Hispanic males.

While there are many reasons, both voluntary and involuntary, why a firm may go out of business, (and while an apparently successful business may actually be foundering), firm continuity is—at least on the surface—one measure of positive performance. The CBO survey has data on whether a firm survived until 1986, the year the survey was mailed to respondents. Among CBO respondents, male-owned firms were more likely to survive than those owned by females, a difference that held for minority and nonminority respondents. The percentages of firms surviving to 1986 were as follows: nonminority women, 58 percent, nonminority men 65 percent; Asian women, 58 percent, Asian men, 66 percent; black women, 51 percent, black men 62 percent; Hispanic women, 55 percent, Hispanic men, 64 percent.

Sales and survival are probably highly correlated, that is, if a firm had receipts of under $5,000, its owner was more likely to end operations by 1986, other factors being equal. However, other things may not always be equal, and there are be several reasons why an owner might tolerate low receipts for a relatively long period of time.

One reason that low receipts might be tolerated is that they might be temporary, especially in a start-up firm. Although receipts in a new business are often modest, owners expect earnings to improve. A second reason for low receipts is that business ownership may be a side activity or a secondary source of income. For example, a college teacher might be a consultant on the side, relying on his/her academic salary as the main source of income.

Third, it has been suggested that some married women who can afford to tolerate low receipts choose to do so when their paid employment alternatives include only part-time, low-income jobs. This possibility raises the issue of the "opportunity costs of doing business," which is simply a comparison of actual self-employment income with the wages or salary that might have been earned in paid employment. Because women typically earn less than men, their business opportunity costs are lower. That lower opportunity costs may have had implications for the entrepreneurship of women in the CBO survey is evident in the finding that although women-owned firms had smaller profits than those owned by men, women were less likely than men to cite insufficient profits as the primary reason for discontinuing their businesses.

However, the CBO survey also reveals that married women, perhaps because of the human and financial capital transfers discussed above, had financial returns from their businesses that were substantially above those of never-married women. Firms owned by married nonminority women in 1982, for example, averaged $18,863 in 1982 receipts, compared to an average of $10,010 for never-married nonminority women.

Studies of minority entrepreneurship reveal that the most critical component of a firm's start-up capital is the amount of noninstitutional equity seed capital available, that is, the amount of informal equity (non-borrowed money) contributed by the owner and the owner's spouse, other family members, and friends (Ando, 1988a; Chen et al., 1982). Access to commercial bank credit is viewed as a second-best, albeit important, financing choice for minorities.

However, women business owners have identified commercial bank loans as the prime financial ingredient in determining a firm's performance (Castro, 1988; U.S. Congress, 1988). The CBO survey considered only two factors on access to bank credit: whether an owner (1) borrowed money from a bank to acquire a business and/or (2) cited insufficient financing as the chief reason the business did not survive. Unfortunately, the survey does not indicate whether an owner applied for a bank loan but was rejected. Nor can risk of default be evaluated from the available data. Nonetheless, according to the CBO survey, bank loans were generally less common among female owners; they had been taken out by 61 percent of nonminority female owners and 66 percent of nonminority males, 46 percent of Asian female and male owners, 50 percent of black female and 57 percent of black male owners, and 51 percent of Hispanic female and male owners.

On the whole, very few owners blamed insufficient financing as the chief cause of firm nonsurvival. Each group of female owners was slightly less likely than its corresponding group of male owners to cite inadequate funding. Among women, the percentages ranged from one percent in the case of nonminorities to five percent for blacks; the figures for men were about twice as high, ranging from two percent among nonminorities to nine percent among blacks.

The 1982 Characteristics of Business Owners survey leaves many questions about business owners unanswered. Nonetheless, while information on women business owners is still sketchy, it is improving in scope and quality, and the CBO survey adds greatly to our knowledge base of this growing group of entrepreneurs. Given some of the projections about women business owners, even more attention needs to be paid to who these women are, why they see ownership as an attractive alternative, and the methods they are using to make their American dream come true.

Behind the Scenes: Women in Television

SALLY STEENLAND

ALTHOUGH MORE WOMEN than ever before are employed in the television entertainment industry, many of them in decision-making positions, it is still much more difficult for women than for men to get jobs and promotions in that business. Despite almost two decades of rising female employment in television networks and production studios, the top jobs remain largely male-dominated. Furthermore, like women in many other fields, women in the television industry too often end up in occupational ghettoes rather than in those industry jobs considered nontraditional for females, e.g., writing for action-adventure shows or producing. As is true in other industries, females employed in television generally earn less than their male counterparts, even when controlling for such variables as type of job and job tenure, among other factors.

An examination of the most recent data available on women working in three key television job slots—as producers, directors, and writers—shows the extent of women's progress and how far they still have to go.

Producers

Women are employed as producers, supervising producers, and coproducers on a number of programs, although they have yet to make substantial inroads among executive producers, who are at the top of the producer pecking order. (In general, producers oversee the budget and logistics of program episodes.) Women worked as producers of some type on half of the 20 top Nielson-rated shows of the 1986-87 television season. On nine of them, the women shared producer credits with men. However, women were executive producers of only four of the 20 top-rated shows. On three of these, they shared executive producer credits with men. Only one program—"My Sister Sam"—was produced solely by a woman.

When one shifts the analysis and examines the total number of producers who are female, rather than the number of shows with one or more female producers, the picture is even less rosy. The total number of producers is quite high, since each program employs several. However, although the 20 top-rated shows of the 1986-87 season employed a total of 101 producers, only 21 were female.

The trend in the following year was not encouraging. The 26 new TV shows of the 1987-88 fall season employed a total of 113 producers, of whom only 16—or 14 percent—were female. Only nine of the new shows (35 percent) employed women as producers of any type, and on only three (12 percent) were women part of the executive producer team.

By some accounts, the 1988-89 television season seemed to have been a step forward for women. Two premiering shows, "Roseanne" and "Murphy Brown," contained strong female leads as well as women producers behind the scenes. Furthermore, both programs enjoyed critical and ratings success. However, the high visibility of these shows should not obscure the overall employment figures for women. A selection of 20 programs airing during the 1988-89 season reveals that out of 107 producers, 15 were women. Moreover, women were part of the executive producing team on only three of the 20 shows.

Directors

The job of director is a nontraditional one for women in the television entertainment industry. The director holds a position of visible authority, not only over a cast but also over a crew that may be largely or entirely male, and over the handling of technical equipment. It is the position in which the fewest women can be found.

Of the 20 top-rated programs of the 1986-87 season, only six (30 percent) employed any women directors at all during the entire year. On only two of these shows ("Amen" and "My Sister Sam") did women direct over half of the season's episodes. In fact, on average, women directed only 12 percent of all the episodes of the season's 20 top-rated programs.

Writers

More women are employed as television writers than as producers or directors, but women writers are more likely to be freelancers than to be employed on the staff of a show.

Freelancers have less steady employment than staff writers, less influence over the final versions of their own scripts, and virtually no influence over the developing story lines of a show. Moreover, freelancers are denied opportunities open to staff writers, who—after a few seasons with a show—often move up to producer level, which means more money and more creative control.

Of the top 20 shows of the 1986-87 season, 17 (85 percent) hired women writers at some point during the year.

Only "Amen," "Murder, She Wrote," and "Falcon Crest" had no scripts written by women during the entire season. However, on only two programs ("Who's the Boss" and "My Sister Sam") were more than half of the writers women. On average, women accounted for 21 percent of the writers employed over the season on the 17 shows that had hired women writers.

Salaries are another measure of workplace equality or inequality in the television industry. In May 1989, the Writers Guild released a major study of television and film industry employment patterns relating to employees' gender, race and ethnicity, and age (Bielby and Bielby, 1989). The study, which covered the period from 1982 to 1987, included the following major findings concerning women writers:

- In 1987, women writers for television and film earned only 63 cents for every dollar earned by white male writers, a drop from 73 cents in 1982.

- From 1982 to 1987, over three-quarters of all the writers employed in television and film were white males.

- Although the earnings gap between men and women who began their writing careers in 1982 was not large in the early years (less than $1,000 in 1983), women did not sustain their career momentum.

- For minority female writers, the numbers are worse. From 1982 to 1987, minority writers (both women and men) accounted for only two percent of all writers employed in television and film.

Overall, the statistics about women in the television industry show that women have yet to achieve a critical mass in any of the three occupations discussed in this chapter. (Critical mass, thought to be achieved when a minority holds about 30 percent of the jobs, seems to be necessary before the minority can exert real influence and make change.) In addition, the data show employment patterns in television that at best only parallel overall employment patterns for women—and in some cases appear to be worse.

And the numbers do not tell the behind-the-scenes stories. Anecdotes abound of talented women unable to find work while mediocre men find themselves in great demand; of a double standard whereby female failure carries a personal stigma, while male failure is seen as valuable experience; of sexual harassment that must be dealt with, yet not reported lest a woman become known as a "troublemaker."

However, the reasons for women's lack of equality are difficult to document in an industry with a high failure rate for both sexes and an idiosyncratic operating style. Persons working in this tough, intensely competitive, and risky industry offer varying views of women's employment prospects.

Some insiders claim that the barriers impeding women's rise in the industry rest with women themselves, i.e., women need to become more competitive, more assertive, and more willing to take risks. Women, so this argument goes, need to learn the rules of working in a male-dominated business and to play by them. When women learn to adapt their behavior and attitudes to the industry culture, their employment problems will be solved.

Not all insiders agree with this perspective, however. Those who disagree argue that sex discrimination and bias run strongly throughout the television entertainment industry. In fact, some see it as a closed, backward industry where personal compatibility and the "right chemistry" rank unusu-

Barbara Corday, executive vice president of prime time programs for CBS, one of the highest ranking positions in entertainment television. *Courtesy CBS*

ally high in hiring and promotion decisions. In a business that relies heavily on informal social groupings, women lack access to opportunities that advance their careers; thus, they remain stuck at lower levels—if they are hired in the first place. Their male colleagues, on the other hand, readily find mentors who help them to move up. According to this view, real progress for women in the television industry will not occur until industry practices of sex discrimination begin to change.

Increasing women's opportunities for employment and advancement in the television industry is an issue of simple fairness, but most Hollywood insiders agree that increased numbers of women would bring about noticeable changes in both the process and the product of television.

Many believe that with more women in key jobs, outmoded industry practices based on "macho" concepts would be questioned and replaced by more commonsense methods of work, and that there would be greater sensitivity to the demands of balancing job and family. Further, with more women in creative control behind the camera, the image of women in front of the camera would be more authentic and multidimensional. Subjects that are of particular interest to women—but perceived as unimportant or taboo to men—might find their way onto the screen.

These hypotheses have yet to be proven. But although women's progress is slower than it should be, more women are employed in the television industry than ever before, and they are primed for power. Many women are working their way up through the network and production studio ranks, and others are independent producers and entrepreneurs.

Whether or not the television industry is moved by appeals for simple workplace equity, it is in the industry's self-interest to move women up. By their sheer numbers and ability, women can expand the talent pool, increase the diversity of television programming, and improve the industry's long-range strategic planning.

Women in Art

ELSA HONIG FINE

In 1905, W. S. Sparrow, in *Women Painters of the World*, sought to prove that although male and female "genius" may differ, "there is room in the garden of art for flowers of every kind," and only those who do not think would ask: "Where is there a woman artist equal to any man among the great masters?" In 1971, Linda Nochlin posed a similar question in "Why Have There Been No Great Women Artists?" One of her conclusions was that it was not genetics but society itself that prevented "greatness" in women from developing. "Art is not a free, autonomous activity of a super-endowed individual . . . but rather . . . occur[s] in a social situation, [is an] integral element of this social structure, and [is] mediated and determined by specific and definable social institutions . . ." (Nochlin, 1971: 32). Thus, she refuted the "golden nugget of genius" and other myths developed around male artists.

Dabbling in the arts has always been an acceptable female pastime. Indeed, in the nineteenth century, when, because of demographic changes, there emerged in the United States and Europe significant numbers of "redundant" women (unmarried middle-class women needing to support themselves), many turned their feminine artistic "accomplishments" into fee-paying work with little loss of status. They worked as china and pottery painters and illustrated children's books and stories in ladies magazines. They were colorists in graphics studios, copyists at the Louvre, and plan tracers in architectural offices. They began taking private students.

Women's colleges were the first to develop comprehensive art history programs and art museums to prepare their graduates to be consumers, connoisseurs, and volunteers; only recently, however, have they prepared women to be professionals. Many of the women who have become professionals—on art faculties and in museums—still are underpaid and outranked. (It is only in this decade that women have been appointed art department chairs or museum directors.)

While historically a majority of gallery owners have been women—a phenomenon that can be viewed as an extension of women's traditional role of nurturer—most galleries are reluctant to house too many women in their stables. Women's art does not sell well, states the myth, and is a bad investment. (None of the works auctioned for high prices during the 1988 auction mania in New York City and London were done by women.)

Fearful that their criticism would not be taken seriously, many women critics were reluctant in their advocacy of women artists. Higher ranked art historians hesitated in their support of dissertations on women artists and courses on women in art. In recent years, both situations have changed. Respected critics such as Lucy Lippard and Arlene Raven publish feminist criticism in mainstream journals; dissertations on Mary Cassatt, Berthe Morisot, Cecilia Beaux, Suzanne Valdon, Miriam Schapiro, and Irene Rice Pereira, among others, have been completed or are in process; courses on women artists, once consigned to interim sessions or off-peak hours, are oversubscribed and continue to proliferate in institutions throughout the United States.

Research and Writing

When I went to the card catalogs in the mid-1970s to begin research on *Women and Art: A History of Women Painters and Sculptors from the Renaissance to the 20th Century* (Fine, 1978), most of the books I found were variations on "how to paint beautiful women" or the "100 most beautiful women in art." Aside from some artists' memoirs and a few monographs and exhibition catalogs, the bulk of material for *Women and Art* came from biographies of famous male artists, many of whom were married to or the fathers of talented women.

The new wave of feminism had stimulated many feminist art historians, and the mid-1970s saw the publication of several surveys: Eleanor Tufts's *Our Hidden Heritage* (1974), Cindy Nemser's *Art Talk* (1975) (interviews with contemporary women), Karen Petersen's and J. J. Wilson's *Women Artists: Recognition and Reappraisal* (1976), and Hugo Munsterberg's *A History of Women Artists* (1975). These books were "additive," designed for the most part to supplement the predominantly male-dominated texts used in introductory art history courses. Responding to pressure from (and threats of boycotts by) feminists, the mid-1980s revisions of these introductory texts included token representations of women. Although American feminists pioneered in the extrication of women artists hidden in the history of other countries, it was not until 1982 that a survey of American women artists was published: Charlotte S. Rubinstein's *American Women Artists: From Early Indian Times to the Present*. (Her survey of American women sculptors is forthcoming.)

The first periodical devoted to women in the arts, *The Feminist Art Journal*, was founded in 1972 and ended with Volume 6, Number 2 in the summer of 1977. New York-based, it had as its goals to be the woman artist's voice in the art world, to improve the status of women artists, and to expose sexist exploitation and discrimination. Perhaps its most important legacy was articles on women's traditional art (see Rom, 1981/82: 19-24). This serious consideration of "crafts" by feminist art historians is also part of current art historical revisionism—the recognition that artists other than the "masters" can contribute to our understanding of the art of a period; that "bad" art can be as instructive in understanding a period as "good" art, and, indeed, that there is no such thing as "bad" art; and that artisans as well as fine artists are worthy of study.

The *Feminist Art Journal* also published original research on historical and contemporary women artists, as did *Womanart*, whose eight issues were published in New York in the late 1970s.

Feminist researchers in the 1970s took several directions. Some celebrated vaginal imagery; others looked for commonalities in women's art. Judy Chicago celebrated 39 great women in history with *The Dinner Party*, which focused on a series of plates and place settings on elaborately embroidered runners that carried her female-form language. Lucy Lippard, in her catalog essay for the 1975 Paris Biennale, "The Women Artists' Movement—What Next?," suggested that art by women had "a central focus (often 'empty,' often circular or oval), parabolic bag-like forms, obsessive line and detail, veiled strata, tactile or sensuous surfaces and forms, associative fragmentation, autobiographical emphasis" (Lippard, quoted in Alloway, 1976: 68). These ideas were eventually refuted, however, as close examination of art by men found that they used similar forms.

There were attempts to define feminist art and feminist contributions to the art of the period. Besides redefining the category "fine" art, feminists began to introduce content and emotion into a Modernism that many viewed as sterile; they contributed to the idea of pluralism in art. Art became political again. Feminism sought to "change the character of art," and was viewed as an "ideology, a value system, a revolutionary strategy, a way of life" (Lippard, 1980: 362).

The consensus today is that art by women can sometimes be distinguished from art by men in a given period only by its interpretation of a theme—the female experience of rape, birth, and domesticity does indeed differ from that of the male. But even those attitudes evolve. For example, Carolyn Seifert (1980/81) traced how art reflected the changing attitudes toward household objects and the chores of American women during the last 100 years: the image of the housewife changed from the "epicenter of the home charged with the sacred task of maintaining domestic order," to "frustrated housewife sex-object," to "a feminine power that can transform the reality of the world through fantasy."

Still, the search for a commonality in women's art continues. In a review of the 1985 Reflections: Women in Their Own Image exhibit at Ceres (the feminist cooperative in New York City), where the curators were looking for a mid-1980s feminist art statement, Judith Chiti (1986) did find a commonality—a preoccupation with group and self-exploration.

Another direction taken by researchers in the mid-1970s was the examination of art historical "givens," for example, Norma Broude's 1977 essay "Degas's Misogyny." Because Degas painted women as individualized, sensitive human beings rather than as generalized, voluptuous sex objects with firm, ripe breasts, male art historians have presumed he disdained women. There was also an examination of received images, as in Carol Duncan's 1973 "Happy Mothers and Other New Ideas in French Art." Paintings were used to promulgate the new Rousseauian concept that family life was blissful and a woman's role was to stay at home, raise the children, and run an ordered house. These ideas were promoted with a vengeance in the art of Victorian England and elsewhere, and their messages continue to be decoded by contemporary feminists (see Shefer, 1986).

The archaeological and extrication processes begun by American feminist art historians in the 1970s continue. While a few surveys, such as Nancy Heller's *Women Artists: An Illustrated History* (1987), have been published in the 1980s, they are for the general reader. Scholarly studies on individual artists abound. Frido Kahlo, Remedios Varo, Berthe Morisot, Artemisia Gentileschi, Rosa Bonheur, Joan Mitchell, Nancy Graves, Elizabeth Murray, Sofonisba Anguissola, Julia Morgen, and the doyennes Helen Frankenthaler, Georgia O'Keeffe, Lee Krasner, and Mary Cassatt have been the subjects of newly published monographs or book-length catalogs published in conjunction with full-scale retrospectives. Women who were ignored in historical movements are finally getting their due (see, for example, Behr, 1988; Chadwick, 1985; and Katz, 1986/87).

The lives and works of many women artists are now being extricated from those of their more famous mates. Recently brought to light in the pages of *Woman's Art Journal* have been the important oeuvres of Mary Nimmo Moran (wife of Thomas), Mary Fairchild MacMonnies (Frederick), Josephine Nivison Hopper (Edward), Sally Michel Avery (Milton), Dorothy Dehner (David Smith), Elsie Drigges (Lee Gatch), to name just a few of the Americans. Robert Hobbs called the Avery relationship a collaboration—at times she would follow him, but just as often "their ideas evolved simultaneously" (Hobbs, 1987/88: 6). Such could be said of many artist couples. While their mates sought renown in the art world, the women often painted in the privacy of their homes while they managed children, households, and their husbands' careers.

Most of the books and articles cited above are concerned with instating women into the traditional framework. This approach has been attacked in recent years by some feminist art historians. According to Thalia Gouma-Peterson and Patricia Mathews in "Feminist Critique of Art History" (1987), an essay as critical to the late 1980s as Nochlin's was to the 1970s:

> Such an approach is ultimately self-defeating, for it fixes women within preexisting structures without questioning the validity of these structures. Furthermore, since many of the same women artists have been repeatedly discussed, feminist art history has come dangerously close to creating its own cannon of white female artists (primarily painters), a canon that is almost as restrictive as its male counterpart (p. 327).

Two New York-based feminist art periodicals founded in the late 1970s—*Women Artists News* and *Heresies*—continue to publish. *Women Artists News* lists art exhibits and other events of interest, sponsors and reviews symposia, and presents short reviews of books and exhibitions. *Heresies*, describing itself as "an idea-oriented journal devoted to the examination of art and politics from a feminist perspective," is run by a collective.

Reflecting the spirit of the 1980s, *Woman's Art Journal* began publishing in Knoxville, Tennessee in the first year of the decade. Whereas previously, women's work and books about women artists were welcomed uncritically by feminist and feminist journals, the editor offered *Woman's Art Journal* as a vehicle for honest criticism: "Without a critical voice, women's work will again be perceived with lesser value." *Woman's Art Journal* "has maintained a reputation for publishing scholarly articles on women artists from all historical periods, with a variety of viewpoints" (ibid.: 331).

The *Journal*'s articles represent the various "feminisms." They are still concerned with rescuing women's work from the basement of art history and with extricating the work of women artists from that of their famous spouses. The articles in *Woman's Art Journal* also deconstruct received images of women, offer discourses on the ways women negotiate power for themselves, deal with issues of class, race, and sexual preference, psychoanalytic theory, and goddess imagery. That books about women in the arts have become big business is evident in the *Journal's* review section. Up to 16 books are reviewed in each issue. Men as well as women serve on the editorial board and are published regularly in the periodical.

Institutions and Organizations

Feminist pressure for institutional change begun in the mid-1970s has had some effect, but not as much as one would have expected. In 1975, women comprised about 75 percent of the art school undergraduate population and about half the graduate population; at the instructional level, women were gathered in the lower ranks. According to a 1988 Women's Caucus for Art survey, those figures have changed little. But government affirmative action hiring programs have had some effect: whereas in 1975, 21 percent of the art schools surveyed reported no women on their studio faculties, in 1988, none had fewer than 10 percent and 19 percent had female chairs.

In 1972, a national survey showed that only 18 percent of the commercial galleries had women artists in their stables, and of those museums that collected contemporary art, only six to 10 percent of their purchases were from women artists. By 1988, "women artists [were] 38% of all artists . . . but only about 10% of [gallery] exhibitions [were] of women artists' work. For prestigious museums, the percentage [was] even lower" (Downie, 1988: 16). In 1985, about 16 percent of the one-person shows in New York City were of women's work.

Tired of exclusion and tokenism, women organized alternative programs and exhibition spaces—in New York at the Women's Interart Center and Soho 20, in Chicago at Artemisia Gallery, and in California in Judy Chicago's and Miriam Schapiro's feminist art programs at Fresno State College and the California Institute of the Arts, respectively.

Beginning as an arm of the politically active Art Worker's Coalition, Women Artists in Revolution (WAR) sought funds in 1969 to open a center from which to direct their activities. WAR's Women's Interart Center opened in 1971 and two years later organized Women Choose Women, the first of a series of all-women shows that culminated in Women Artists: 1550-1950, which opened at the Los Angeles County Museum in 1976.

A women's ad hoc committee was formed in 1970 to protest the low representation of women artists in the Whitney Museum of American Art's Annuals. From a low of five percent representation in 1969, women artists were 23 percent of the total in 1973, and 29 percent in 1985. New York's Museum of Modern Art was picketed in 1973; it was picketed again in 1984 to protest the low percentage of women in its reopening show—15 out of 166. It was in 1984 that the anonymous activist group, the Guerrilla Girls, emerged. They have become the conscience of the art world, publishing advertisements and posters to show the percentage of women represented in various museums, galleries, and art reviews (Loughery, 1987).

The most effective women artists organization is perhaps the Women's Caucus for Art, founded in 1972 as an arm of the College Art Association (CAA). Now also a grassroots organization with chapters throughout the country, the caucus sponsors feminist panels at the annual CAA meetings and sees that the larger professional organization is responsive to women's needs.

As if in response to the lack of visibility of women artists, the National Museum of Women in the Arts (NMWA) was founded in Washington, D.C. in 1981 and opened its doors to the public in 1987. With an astonishing 90,000-plus membership, it has as its objectives acquisition, research, and exhibition, but its agenda is not feminist. In counterpoise to the new museum's opening exhibition of mostly genteel paintings by American women artists of 1830 to 1930, Washington's Project for the Arts mounted Too Hot to Handle, an exhibit that was "intentionally confrontational, the works display[ing] a consciousness of political, sexual, and social issues conspicuously absent in NMWA" (Fahlman, 1987/88: 58).

Whether conservative or radical, the National Museum of Women in the Arts and Too Hot to Handle both represent separatist visions—art segregated for no other reason save gender. Some believe that the existence of the National Museum of Women in the Arts leaves establishment museums "off the hook," since now that there is a museum to showcase women's art, they will no longer feel the responsibility to purchase and feature it. But that is not necessarily the case. During NMWA's opening year, Washington's National Gallery of Art featured one-woman shows of works by Georgia O'Keeffe and Berthe Morisot.

The National Museum of Women in the Arts building before its recent renovation and conversion to a museum.
Courtesy National Museum of Women in the Arts

The same criticism might be made about *Woman's Art Journal*, i.e., the existence of a publication devoted exclusively to women's art relieves other arts journals from the responsibility of publishing articles about women. Richard Martin, former editor of *Arts Magazine*, would disagree. He claims that *Woman's Art Journal* is a constant reminder—an irritant, if you will—for everyone in the art world. Separatist operations need to exist because there is still so much catching up to do; they are also a reminder that full integration is the ultimate goal.

A Portrait of Hispanic Women in the United States

GLORIA BONILLA-SANTIAGO

HISPANIC WOMEN ARE PART of a very fast growing segment of the U.S. population. Between 1980 and 1988, the number of Hispanics in this country increased by 34 percent, a rate more than four times that (eight percent) of the U.S. population as a whole. This rapid growth, produced in about equal parts by immigration and natural increase (births minus deaths), brought the Hispanic proportion of the U.S. population up from 6.5 percent in 1980 to eight percent in 1988 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, August 1988b). These and other statistics about the U.S. Hispanic population in general furnish the context for a discussion of the situation of Hispanic females, who in 1988 accounted for 51 percent of the 19.4 million persons of Hispanic origin in the United States.

There have, of course, been significant numbers of Hispanic women and men in North America for hundreds of years—since long before the United States became a republic—and Hispanics, from Mexico in particular, have been migrating to the United States in substantial numbers since the early 1900s. People of Mexican origin constitute the oldest and still by far the largest Hispanic subgroup in the United States—62 percent of the total Hispanic population.

Since World War II, however, the other major Hispanic subgroups have increased appreciably. People of Puerto

Rican origin now account for 13 percent of all Hispanics, those of Central and South American origin for 12 percent, and those of Cuban origin for five percent. (The remaining eight percent are people of "other" Hispanic origin, who range from recent immigrants from Spain to people whose families have been in this country for centuries and who no longer claim a specific Hispanic country of origin.)

Decennial census data about Hispanics' places of birth suggest the role that immigration plays in the growth of the major Hispanic subgroups, especially those of other than Mexican origin. Only about a quarter of people of Mexican origin living in the United States in 1980 were foreign born. But about half of the Puerto Ricans were born in Puerto Rico, and three-quarters of the Cubans and four-fifths of Central and South Americans were born outside the United States (Valdivieso and Davis, 1988).

Indeed, approximately three million Latin Americans immigrated to the United States between 1960 and 1970, and more than two million immigrated between 1980 and 1988. (Because Puerto Ricans are U.S. citizens, these numbers do not include the Puerto Ricans who moved to the mainland.) High immigration rates from Latin American countries seem likely to continue because of unstable economic and political conditions in many of those countries (ibid.).

Historically, immigrants to the United States have tended to locate where other immigrants (or the descendants of recent immigrants) from their country of origin live, and this pattern prevails among Hispanic-origin immigrants. Nine states contain nearly 90 percent of this country's Hispanic population; California and Texas alone account for 55 percent. The geographical location of Hispanic subgroups is determined largely by their "point of entry" into the United

States (ibid.). Most Hispanics of Mexican origin live in California or Texas, while almost all Cubans live in Florida—about half of them in Dade County. Central and South Americans are concentrated in California, but sizable communities also exist in eastern cities. Puerto Ricans are most likely to be along the East Coast, a large number of them in New York City.

The migration to the United States of Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, and other Hispanic groups earlier in this century resulted in the eventual movement of whole families. The male head of household or a younger male member might come first, followed later by the rest of the family, but two-parent families often migrated together as well. In the last 10 years, however, a growing proportion of Hispanic immigrants have been families consisting of women with children. This development may relate to the fact that although the majority (70 percent) of Hispanic families in the United States today are married-couple families, the proportion comprising families headed by women has been growing (from 21.5 percent to 23.4 percent between 1982 and 1988).

Hispanic families in general are considerably less well off than non-Hispanic families; median income for Hispanic families overall was $20,306 in 1987, one-third less than that of non-Hispanic families. The median for Hispanic families headed by women was only $9,805 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, August 1988c).

As these figures suggest, poverty is a serious problem among Hispanic families and is particularly acute among those headed by women; more than half of the latter were poor in 1987. Even among Hispanic families overall, the poverty level proportion was 2.5 times that of non-Hispanic families (26 percent vs. under 10 percent). However, poverty rates differ greatly, depending on the Hispanic subgroup: families of Puerto Rican origin had the highest poverty rate (38 percent), followed by those of Mexican origin and "other" Hispanics (26 percent each), and families of Central and South American origin (19 percent). Families of Cuban origin were the least likely of Hispanic families to be poor (14 percent).

A number of factors contribute to the socioeconomic status of Hispanic women (and men) in the United States. Many of them confront a language barrier, which may create problems for them in school and in the workforce. On the whole, Hispanics have had less schooling than the rest of the U.S. population. Indeed, as of 1987, only half of all Hispanic adult females had completed high school, compared to over three-fourths of their non-Hispanic counterparts. Twelve percent of Hispanic women had completed less than five years of schooling; the comparable proportion among non-Hispanic women was less than two percent. And, at the other end of the educational continuum, Hispanic women were about half as likely as non-Hispanic women to have completed college—eight vs. 17 percent. However, the educational attainment of Hispanic women has been rising; as of 1987, Hispanic adult females had completed an average (median) of 12 years of schooling, up from 10.5 in 1981 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, August 1984 and August 1988a).

Educational attainment is, of course, extremely important, especially to success in the labor market—to good, steady jobs, to higher earnings, and to reducing the probability and duration of unemployment. The comparative lack of education among Hispanic women tends to depress the earnings of those who work and may discourage others from entering the labor force.

In any case, Hispanic women in general are somewhat less likely than non-Hispanic women to be in the labor force (51 percent vs. 56 percent in 1987), and Hispanic women in the labor force are more likely than other women to be unemployed (9.5 percent vs. 6.4 percent). However, overall labor force statistics conceal wide variations among Hispanic subgroups. Women of Cuban and Central and South American origin have labor force participation rates (55 and 59 percent, respectively) that are close to or above the rate of non-Hispanic women. On the other hand, the rate among women of Mexican origin is 51 percent, and among those of Puerto Rican origin, it is only 40 percent. Unemployment rates also vary, with Cuban-origin women historically experiencing less unemployment than other Hispanic women.

Recent research by the National Council of La Raza (1988) highlights the marginal position that Hispanic women occupy in the U.S. labor market. Their relatively low level of educational attainment compared to that of other women in the United States, coupled with language problems and employment discrimination on account of sex (as well as national origin and sometimes race), contributes to the segregation of many Hispanic women in low-skilled, low-paid occupations and jobs that are vulnerable to layoff, often in declining industries.

The proportion of Hispanic women in clerical occupations is fairly similar to that of all U.S. women, but Hispanic women are far more heavily concentrated than other women in operative jobs, such as dressmakers, assemblers, machine operators, and the like. Conversely, they are less likely than other women to be in managerial and professional specialties. (Even in these occupations, Hispanic women are likely to hold highly visible positions in such areas as public affairs, rather than decisionmaking positions in upper management [Bonilla-Santiago, 1988].)

The occupational distribution of Hispanic women has a strong effect on their median earnings, since earnings vary greatly by occupation. (In 1987, for example, female operatives had median weekly earnings of $231, barely half of the $458 median earnings of female professionals [U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1988].) Median annual earnings for Hispanic women workers overall were $8,554 in 1987. Again, however, generalizations about Hispanic women workers conceal differences among the various subgroups. Women of Mexican origin, who are more likely to be operatives than other Hispanic women, had median earnings in 1987 of $7,912—the lowest of all Hispanic female subgroups. The highest earners ($11,327) were women of Cuban origin, who were more likely than either Hispanic women workers in general *or* non-Hispanic women workers to be professionals or managers (27 percent of the Cuban-origin women workers were in such occupations, compared to 16 percent of Hispanic women workers overall, and 26 percent of non-Hispanic women workers).

On average, however, Hispanic women workers earn substantially less than other workers in the United States. Hispanic women who usually work full time earn about 82 percent of what all comparably employed white women earn, about 85 percent of what their Hispanic male counterparts earn, and only 56 percent of what white men earn.

Even though their labor force participation is currently lower, and their labor market difficulties are greater, than those of their non-Hispanic counterparts, Hispanic women will comprise a growing proportion of the U.S. workforce in the future (National Council of La Raza, 1988). A key reason is that Hispanic women (and indeed, Hispanics in general) are a youthful population compared to the U.S. female population as a whole. Forty-eight percent (compared to 36 percent

THE CITY OF HIALEAH GARDENS
GILDA OLIVEROS

Gilda Oliveros, first Cuban-born female mayor in the United States.
Paul Rubiera/Miami Herald

of U.S. females overall) had not yet reached their prime employment years—they were under 21 years old. The median age of Hispanic females was just under 26 in 1988, compared to almost 33 for the total female population. Conversely, less than six percent of Hispanic women were 65 or over, compared to 13 percent of U.S. females overall (see Table 1 in the statistical appendix).

The high fertility rate (number of births per 1,000 women 18 to 44) among Hispanic women is another indicator that Hispanics of both sexes will constitute a growing proportion of America's workforce. Although the fertility rate among Hispanic women has declined during the 1980s, it is still considerably higher than that of non-Hispanic women in the

U.S.: 96 compared to 69 in 1987 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, May 1988). Eleven percent of all births in the United States in that year were to Hispanic women.

Even this brief statistical profile of Hispanic women suggests the diversity among and within the various Hispanic subgroups, and the common sociocultural elements that bind them as "Hispanas," "Latinas," or "Hermanas." Hispanic women typically share the cultural heritage of Spain, the Spanish language, and the Catholic religion, but Indo-Hispanic traits and heritage characterize some, and African-Indo-Hispanic traits and heritage characterize others. However, all tend to share certain values and cultural attributes, such as an orientation toward persons rather than abstractions; commitment to individual autonomy within a context of familial and traditional Hispanic values; emphasis on the central importance of the family; and emphasis on the father or husband as the main authority figure (Dieppa and Montiel, 1978).

Female (and male) Hispanic immigrants may bring with them traditional Latin American notions about gender roles—women are expected to be "gentle, mild, sentimental, emotional, intuitive, impulsive, fragile, submissive, docile, dependent, and timid" and men to be "hard, rough, cold, intellectual, rational, far-sighted, profound, strong, authoritarian, independent, and brave" (Natera, 1988).

Immigrant women from Latin America confront the "culture shock" that awaits Hispanic immigrants of both sexes—the language barrier; different cultural traditions; different values, beliefs, and lifestyles; different institutional systems; racial and/or ethnic discrimination; and, for many, adaptation from an agrarian or rural environment to an urban one. In addition, Hispanic women may find that the dominant (non-Hispanic) U.S. culture has expectations about the appropriate female role that, while ambiguous, are quite different from those to which they are accustomed. Their generally low level of education, inability or limited ability to speak English, and discrimination in employment relegate many Hispanic women to poverty (Bonilla-Santiago, 1988).

Nevertheless, the typical Hispanic woman appears to be trying to bridge two cultures—struggling to achieve greater economic success and more personal and vocational opportunities within both the dominant society and the Hispanic community. Hispanic women have been described as, among other things, strong minded, hard working, and self-assured (Bonilla-Santiago, 1988). Recent research has found that the typical Hispanic woman promotes her children's educational achievement, has strong ties with extended family, closely identifies with the Hispanic community, and has a strong sense of identity and self-esteem (Natera, 1988).

These are important strengths. But improvements in the occupational and socioeconomic condition of Hispanic women require measures to provide more educational and vocational opportunities as well as more effective enforcement of laws barring discrimination in employment. These key steps will not only improve the situation of Hispanic women in this country; they will help ensure a better qualified U.S. workforce in the years to come.

A Portrait of Asian and Pacific American Women

JUANITA TAMAYO LOTT

THE PREVAILING FRAMEWORK for examining and explaining the status of women and people of color in the United States has been that of a minority population whose members are commonly seen as second-class citizens and/or marginal producers and consumers. This framework can be found in research, the mass media, and the public policy arena. However, over the last two decades, demographic changes in the United States and economic changes at a global level have contributed to a growing recognition that the framework is outdated and incomplete. Asian and Pacific American (APA) women are a part of those changes.

Until recently, the history of Asian and Pacific American women in the United States has been little known and of relatively little interest to most Americans. The reasons for this are deeply rooted in history. For decades, Asians and Pacific Islanders were actively discouraged from immigrating to the United States and becoming citizens. An exception was the limited immigration permitted in order to develop the West Coast and Hawaii. The early pioneers were Chinese women (Mark and Chih, 1982) and Japanese women (Glenn, 1986) who came in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries to provide domestic services to, respectively, Chinese men and Japanese men.

Japanese women, in particular, came as wives to labor alongside their husbands in the fields of Hawaii and California (Young and Parish, 1977). They were followed in the early decades of the twentieth century by Filipino and Korean women, whose male counterparts encountered the restrictive immigration and labor patterns of earlier APA immigrants.

Then, during World War II, immigration restrictions began to be relaxed for Asian brides of U.S. servicemen returning from the war in the Pacific and later, the Korean War (B. Kim et al., 1981), though the APA population continued to be minimal until the repeal of the national origins quota system in 1965.

With relaxed immigration policies and the growth of second and succeeding generations of Asian and Pacific Americans, the APA population began to increase substantially. The 1980 census, the latest year for which detailed data are available, counted a total of 3.7 million Asian and Pacific Americans, and for the first time the majority were women—1.9 million, or 52 percent (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983a). Women are now dominant among APA immigrants.

The 1980 census also documented the diversity of APA women by ethnicity, nativity, age, fertility rate, educational attainment, English-language ability, place of residence, labor force participation, income, and occupation. The diversity of these women complicates attempts to develop generalizations about Asian Pacific Americans.

As society in general tries to understand APA women, it must be understood that they do not define themselves in relationship to white men, white women, or other women of color. Their identities are rooted in civilizations that are thousands of years old. The APA populations (interchangeably referred to here as Pan Asian or Asian and Pacific Islander populations) come from cultures and countries containing the majority of the world's population. Those countries vary by language, religion, economic system, and government. Some, such as Japan and China, have been independent nations for centuries, and some, such as India and Guam, bear a colonial legacy from Western and other Asian countries.

Despite these historical diversities, Asian and Pacific Americans tend to be treated as one entity, in part because of their similar treatment and experiences in the United States. For example, Pan Asian women often get stereotyped as docile, subservient, alternately erotic or sexless, and limited in their English-language ability. Likewise, the U.S. soldiers of Japanese, Chinese, and Filipino ethnicity who fought in Southeast Asia were identified, at peril of their lives, as Vietnamese, Laotian, and Cambodian soldiers.

Although there is notable variation among ethnic groups, the educational attainment of APA women in general is unusually high compared to other American population groups. This is due in large part to restrictive U.S. immigration policies that favor college-educated professionals. In 1980, 27 percent of Asian and Pacific Islander women who were at least 25 years old had four or more years of college. In comparison, the figure was 21 percent for white men, 13 percent for white women, eight percent for black women, and six percent for Hispanic, American Indian, Eskimo, and Aleut women. But low educational levels are also found among some groups of APA women. For example, about one-third of Vietnamese women, one-fourth of Chinese women, and about one-fifth of Guamanian, Korean, Filipino, and Samoan women had completed eight or fewer years of education.

Historically, APA women have had higher rates of labor force participation than other women, and that remained true at least through 1980 (Glenn, 1986; Lott, 1985). According to the 1980 census, labor force participation rates varied from a high of 68 percent for Filipino women to a low of 47 percent for Asian Indian and Samoan women. These figures compared to 50 percent for all American women and 58 percent for all Asian Pacific Islander women.

While for most women a high education level often means increased participation in the labor force, for APA women additional factors are involved. These factors include traditional APA values of a strong work ethic, self-reliance, and disapproval of welfare (E. Kim, 1983)

Also significant is the fact that, for Pan Asian families, life in the United States almost dictates multiple wage earners and long work hours. That these families have more multiple wage earners than families of other backgrounds suggests that APA women must work to support their families.

For selected groups, such as Korean and Asian Indian communities, small family businesses are a major source of income. Pan Asian wives and daughters often work as primary, and unpaid, help. This small business atmosphere is reminiscent of the small businesses found in Chinese and Japanese communities before World War II, with the distinction that those businesses were usually confined to serving their own ethnic groups in Chinatowns and Japantowns.

The vast majority of APA women are found in traditionally female occupations, and their income is not commensurate with their education (Lott and Pian, 1979). And, while the median income of Pan Asian women is slightly above that of the U.S. female population in general, it is less than the median income of any group of males. (For example, in 1980, Pan Asian women had a median annual income of $6,685. White men had a median annual income of $12,881, APA men of $11,718, and black men of $8,296.) Furthermore, that income is more readily consumed because APAs had, at least as of 1980, the second largest number of persons per family—3.75—among all families in the United States. That contrasts to 3.83 for American Indian families, 3.69 for black families, and 3.19 for white families. Among all APA families with children under the age of 18 in 1980, 10 percent were headed by single females. That represented a rise of one percentage point over the figure for 1970.

Another characteristic of Pan Asian women is a high interracial marriage rate. In some groups it is between one-fourth and one-third. The rate of "out-marriages" that began among APA women who married U.S. servicemen during World War II, the Korean War, and the Vietnam War has increased among the subsequent generations of U.S.-born Asian and Pacific American women, as has marriage with other Pan Asian groups. Within a group, for second and subsequent generations, the interracial marriage rate can be as high as one-half.

While there is still considerable ignorance about APA women, there are signs that both society in general and APA women themselves are beginning to realize that their numbers and diverse backgrounds are valuable assets to the future of this country.

A cursory review of the popular media indicates a growing visibility that was not evident even 10 years ago. Catalogs and advertisements regularly include APA female models. In 1986, such nationally visible magazines as *Time*, *Ms.*, *Savvy*, and *Mother Jones* featured Asian women on their covers, including Philippine President Corazon Aquino, who was educated in American schools. Personalities such as television reporter Connie Chung are presented for both their American and Asian identities.

"Personalities such as television reporter Connie Chung are presented for both their American and Asian identities." *Courtesy CBS News/Joe McNally*

Among APA women themselves, the recognition is growing that their diverse background is an asset, not a handicap. This is manifested by regular communication and travel across the Pacific by both immigrants and U.S.-born Pan Asians. Although APA women for the most part continue to retain their Asian and Pacific culture, language, food, and religion, they are adapting them to an American setting and available resources.

At the national level, the growing presence of APA women is reflected by such groups as the Organization of Pan Asian American Women, which focuses on public policy issues, and the Organization of Chinese American Women, which provides direct services and education programs. Gradually, Pan Asian women such as Irene Natividad of the National Women's Political Caucus and Elaine Caho and Wendy Lee Gramm, who held high-ranking posts in the Reagan administration, are becoming known nationally. U.S. Representative Patsy Saiki of Hawaii and international financial consultant Lilia Clemente have extended the scope of APA women beyond a national focus to global concerns as they address such issues as immigration, population growth, scarcity of resources, world trade, and greater understanding of Asia and the Pacific regions.

As the number of Asian and Pacific American women begins to reach a critical mass, their talents and contributions are beginning to be acknowledged. These women possess bilingual and bicultural skills that are beneficial to a global economy and a pluralistic society.

A Portrait of American Indian Women and Their Labor Force Experiences

C. MATTHEW SNIPP

AMID THE CONCERN about job opportunities for women in general, and women of color in particular, the experiences of American Indian women in the labor force have received little notice. There are many reasons for this neglect.

Although American Indian women have the distinction of being among America's "first" citizens, they belong to one of the smallest and least visible sectors of American society. (For the sake of convenience, the term "American Indians" includes American Indians and Alaska natives throughout this chapter.) In 1980, the latest year for which data are available, American Indians numbered just 1.4 million, or about one-half of one percent of the total U.S. population. American Indians and Alaska natives lack the numbers to attract public notice by swinging elections, influencing the gross national product, or affecting unemployment rates. Contributing to their very low visibility is the fact that over half of all American Indians reside outside of large metropolitan areas, often in remote and virtually unknown places.

Yet, for a number of reasons, American Indian and Alaska native women deserve much more attention than they get. A major reason is that poverty rates, though dismayingly high among American Indians as a whole, are especially high among Indian women. Their 1979 poverty rate of 27.6 percent was nearly three times as high as that of white women. Almost one-fourth of all American Indian families had incomes below the poverty level, and, as is the case with poor American families in general, a disproportionate share of these poor families (45 percent) was headed by single women. It is impossible to comprehend fully the wealth of a society without also understanding the dimensions of its poverty. Information about America's poorest groups, and this certainly includes American Indian women, has provided a bench mark for understanding statistics about "average" Americans.

Second, because of treaties, legal agreements, judicial settlements, and other policies, American Indians hold a unique relationship with the federal government that distinguishes them from other groups in the United States. Unfortunately, many of these federal actions and policies, which date back to the country's founding, have had adverse consequences. Recently, federal authorities have tried to deal with the severe economic hardships facing American Indians, but with little success.

Third, the labor market experiences of American Indian women are particularly interesting because these women are relative newcomers to the paid workforce. Compared to other women, American Indian women have historically had low rates of participation in the labor force, although, as discussed below, this has been changing in recent years.

Though they possess a special cultural and political status in the United States, American Indian women must confront the same problems that confront other groups of women in

American society. Gender discrimination, occupational segregation, and wage differentials are no less common among these women than they are among all women in the United States. And the economic disadvantages faced by American Indian men are compounded for American Indian women simply because of their gender.

Before turning to the limited data available about American Indian women, it should be noted that this population is extremely diverse. The tribes that constitute America's Indian population vary greatly in size, culture, and economic problems. Unfortunately, a lack of statistical data makes it impossible to explore completely this diversity.

In fact, reliable data as a whole—much less extensive data—about American Indians are difficult to obtain. The usual sources of labor information, such as the Census Bureau's Current Population Survey, do not contain enough Indian respondents to be useful. As a result, as of 1989 the only large-scale source of data about American Indians in the workforce was the 1980 census.

In 1970, according to Census Bureau data, only 35 percent of American Indian women age 16 and over were in the labor force, compared to 48 percent of black women and 41 percent of white women. Just 10 years later, that proportion of slightly over one-third had jumped to nearly one-half—48 percent. The increase during the 1970s was notably greater for American Indian women than for black women, 53 percent of whom were in the labor force in 1980, or for white women, whose labor force participation rate stood at 49 percent (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983a).

This increase in labor force participation would seem to be good news; however, while the increase is certainly encouraging, it masks some deep-seated problems that American Indian women face as their presence in the mainstream workforce grows.

Census data, for example, indicate that unemployment is a serious problem for American Indian women, especially when they are compared to white women. The unemployment rate of American Indian women was double that of white women in both 1970 and 1980. During the 1970s, the unemployment rate for white women rose from five percent to six percent, while it increased from 10 percent to 12 percent among American Indian women. American Indian women also experience greater joblessness than do black women, whose 1970 and 1980 unemployment rates were eight percent and 11 percent, respectively. However, because the unemployment rate of black women increased more rapidly during the 1970s than it did for American Indian women, the unemployment gap between these two groups narrowed somewhat over the decade.

Many factors, some of them common to most women, shape the labor force experiences of American Indian women. There are certain stages of life, for example, that are more conducive to labor force participation than others. As teenagers, American Indian women are most likely to be out of the labor force, but their participation and work experience sharply increase as they complete their schooling. Young American Indian women who have recently completed their education are less likely to have child care responsibilities than relatively older women and are more likely to be working. For instance, 31 percent of American Indian women under the age of 21 were employed in 1980, compared to 49 percent of Indian women between the ages of 21 and 25. Interestingly, American Indian women in their peak childbearing years (20 to 35) do not have workforce participation rates significantly lower than those of older women. In fact, Indian women in their 30s are the most likely to be working outside the home, followed by women in their 20s. Employment is least common among older women, which may well be a reflection of the barriers that prevent older, inexperienced American Indian women from entering the job market.

The impact of age on labor force participation is particularly important in connection with the childbearing and child care responsibilities of Indian women. The fact that lower fertility is related to higher labor force participation is well known, though not well understood. At issue is whether women curtail their childbearing to take advantage of opportunities in the labor market, or whether childbearing necessarily limits the ability of women to be active in the workforce (Bianchi and Spain, 1986).

American Indian women have higher rates of fertility than either blacks or whites. However, they generally resemble black and white women in how their fertility is related to their labor force role. Regardless of age, 1980 data indicate that employed American Indian women had substantially fewer children than women not in the labor force—2.6 vs. 3.4 for ever-married women between the ages of 15 and 54.

Child care responsibilities pose a major obstacle to American Indian women's labor force participation. Among American Indian women with children ranging in age from infancy to 18, only 47 percent were in the labor force in 1980. In contrast, 69 percent of all American Indian women without children were either working or looking for work. These statistics are significant, as they suggest that the extensive kin networks prevalent in many American Indian communities do not necessarily facilitate female labor force participation.

But there are considerations other than age and family obligations that have a strong bearing on whether American Indian women participate in the labor force. American Indians are heavily concentrated in rural areas where economic opportunities are limited (51 percent of the Indian population reside outside of metropolitan areas). Nonmetropolitan labor markets are not only usually more sluggish than metropolitan markets, but they typically have fewer of the types of jobs—such as in clerical or service work—traditionally open to women. In addition, most Indian reservations are located in nonmetropolitan areas and generally have depressed local economies.

Because of their geographic isolation, along with the race and gender barriers they may encounter, only 37 percent of all rural American Indian women held jobs in 1980. In contrast, 46 percent of urban American Indian women were working at that time. Likewise, rural Indian women had a higher unemployment rate than their urban counterparts—13 percent versus 11 percent.

Another reason for the higher employment rates among urban American Indian women is that they are better educated than those in rural areas. Indeed, the employment opportunities in metropolitan economies are powerful influences for relatively well-educated American Indian women to relocate to, or remain in, urban settings.

As expected, the higher the education level, the greater the rate of employment. Sixty-six percent of American Indian women with a college education were employed in 1980, but this was the case for barely 20 percent of those who had finished less than nine years of schooling.

On the other hand, high school dropouts (nine to 11 years of completed schooling) had the highest unemployment rate (17 percent) among Indian women. American Indian women with some college had unemployment rates in the 10-percent range, which was still higher than the six-percent rate for all white women. Only the unemployment rate of American Indian women who were college graduates (five percent) was below that of the white female population as a whole.

In deciding whether to enter the job market, married American Indian women—just as women of any background—make their decisions within the framework of the family unit. As a consequence, the job situation of their husbands is a major factor in this decision. Given their disadvantaged position in the labor market, it might be assumed that American Indian women who work do so purely out of economic necessity. For example, having an employed husband might lessen the pressure to work or to take a job that would be both unrewarding and also interfere with family responsibilities. But this view of the economic compatibility of husbands and wives does not match reality.

Very simply, husbands and wives tend to resemble one another in a number of respects. Men with few skills and little education tend to have wives who also lack skills and education. Of American Indian women married to unemployed men, nearly one-half were not in the labor force; of the women in the labor force, nearly 21 percent were unemployed in 1980. Like their husbands, the wives of unemployed men are also frequently unemployed. This means that while American Indian women may seek work because their husbands are unemployed, they are not necessarily going to find it.

The situation is similar regarding the income of husbands. In view of the fact that American Indian men tend not to have high-paying jobs, the assumption would be that this would present the motive for the wives to augment the family income. However, there is little evidence that American Indian wives seek employment to supplement the low incomes of their husbands, whether those husbands are American Indians or not.

Rather, the data suggest the opposite. The better off the husband is, the more likely it is that his wife is working. Among men with personal incomes of $20,000 or more, nearly six out of 10 (58 percent) had employed American Indian wives in 1980. In contrast, only three in 10 of the wives of the poorest men—those with incomes under $5,000—were working. And even when American Indian wives of the poorest men seek to augment the family income, they are relatively unsuccessful, as over 15 percent of them were unemployed.

This sketch of statistical information about American Indian women indicates the problems and obstacles they face. The bleakest figures come from the official statistics on poverty in the United States mentioned earlier. Compared to black women, American Indian women are somewhat more likely to reside in homes with intact families whose poverty rates tend to be lower (Sandefur and Sakamoto, 1988). Even so, sizable numbers of Indian women, both single and married, have incomes below official poverty levels.

These figures are unlikely to improve unless American Indian women can participate more fully and equitably in the U.S. labor force. Indeed, reflecting the effect of federal cutbacks since 1981, data from the Bureau of Indian Affairs suggest that unemployment among American Indians—and the accompanying poverty and economic hardship—is actually on the rise.

Unless more effective steps are taken to provide American Indian women better access to the labor force and employment opportunities, the "first" among American women will be the last to gain their share of this country's wealth.

Flourishing in the Mainstream: The U.S. Women's Movement Today

SARAH HARDER

ASSESSING THE HEALTH and effectiveness of the women's movement in America offers pundits endless opportunities. Books like Nicholas Davidson's *The Failure of Feminism* (1988) appear with a trumpet of publicity, providing talk show hosts and local columnists with yet another chance to ponder what it is that women want and whether women will ever get their act together. The accepted approach for friend or foe is to minimize the accomplishments of the women's movement, to dissect its shortcomings, and then to proclaim or predict its demise.

Quite a different view of the effectiveness of U.S. women's organizations was delivered on behalf of the Reagan administration in 1988 to the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women. The commission was assessing the "national machinery" that governments worldwide had put in place to oversee implementation of the Nairobi *Forward-Looking Strategies*, the 1985 blueprint for equality adopted at the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women.

The U.S. delegate reported that "women's NGOs" (nongovernmental organizations) now maintain that responsibility in the absence of national machinery:

> American women have become adept at using our system to work for the advancement of women in every field of endeavor. American women have repeatedly demonstrated the effectiveness of using NGOs to further their objectives. . . .
>
> In the United States, nearly all NGOs give information and training to their members *and* to decisionmakers. NGOs can tap public opinion quickly and, frequently, beat the official bureaucracy in identifying the socioeconomic changes affecting women's status. . . . NGOs form part of our effort for monitoring and improving the status of women. Unlike many other countries the United States has no single "national machinery" to promote the advancement of women. I hope that this intervention, however, helps show that such machinery is not the only way to promote advancement (Grefe, 1988).

It is true that the Reagan administration's praise of women's voluntary organizations served in part to justify its dismantling in 1981 of the national machinery, the federal commissions that had existed through five previous administrations to monitor and improve the status of U.S. women.

However, it is also true that voluntary women's organizations in America have moved into the breach. They have created their own national machinery—increasingly effective delivery systems operating at the local, state, and national levels. And more and more intentionally, those separate systems are being linked in a sophisticated design that will speed the rate of progress, so that women's needs and perspectives inform sound public policy.

This is the point where critics always say, "Progress toward what? What is it that women want, and how can you pretend to speak for all women?" The fact is that remarkable consensus exists among women on the issues to be addressed. While women have been without federal leadership on those issues since 1981, they have not been without a plan.

For many U.S. women, 1977 was the point of entry into the organized women's movement. That year, 130,000 women participated in state and territorial meetings defining a "National Plan of Action for Women" and electing delegates to a national convention of the kind first envisioned in 1848 in Seneca Falls by Elizabeth Cady Stanton. Seven thousand women participated in the National Women's Conference held in Houston, Texas, where a 25-point Plan of Action, distilled from recommendations from every state and territory, was amended and ratified by 2,000 delegates. Apart from gender, these delegates were the most diverse elected group ever assembled, representing all ages, races, ethnic and religious backgrounds, and economic statuses. They committed to paper a comprehensive policy agenda for the future, a national blueprint for equality ranging from art and humanities to welfare and poverty.

The National Women's Conference proved an extraordinary catalyst in bringing U.S. women and their issues into the political process, and the issues set forth in the Plan of Action have continued to be rallying points for thousands of U.S. women coming together in organizations, coalitions, and networks.

Many of the specific issues in the plan have been further defined; in working with them, women have both developed new leadership skills and fostered public understanding of their needs. The international meetings held in connection with the U.N. Decade for Women drew American women to Copenhagen and Nairobi. There U.S. women learned the survival aspect of equity issues worldwide. They returned knowing that water is a women's issue, that most refugees are women and children, and that many cultures sanction violence against women. These understandings and a commitment to progress are incorporated into the *Forward-Looking Strategies* and the U.N. Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. (See Arvonne Fraser, "Women and International Development," elsewhere in this volume.)

In 1987, an assessment of the U.S. Plan of Action was completed, not by the government, but by the voluntary "machinery" which has been maintained by women. *Decade of Achievement: 1977-1987*, a report based on a survey of thousands of local, state, and national women's groups, was commissioned and published by the National Women's Conference Committee (NWCC). This is the all-volunteer continuing committee from the International Women's Year, appointed in 1978 under Public Law 94-167, which established U.S. initiatives for the U.N. Decade for Women. Its purpose is to "stimulate the formation and growth of networks at all levels, mobilize public support for the National Plan of Action, and act as a network among networks."

Susanna Downie, editor of *Decade of Achievement*, asserted in a news release on the report that "the American women's movement is alive and well and bigger and more diverse than ever." She stated:

> The study shows phenomenal growth of a wide variety of women's and feminist groups in every part of the United States over the last 15 years, with no sign of slowing down. This phenomenon is not only national, it is "grassroots." It has not been coordinated by any one group or even a coalition of groups, though the participants are clearly in agreement on long-range purposes and underlying principles.

Decade of Achievement documented the establishment of new community institutions, new centers for information, and service delivery. Writing in 1988, Downie illuminated the contrasts:

- In 1970, no one even knew what a "battered women's shelter" was. Now there are at least 1,200 such centers or shelters.

- In 1970, no one had ever heard of a "women's center." A recent compilation by the National Association of Women's Centers has discovered that there are at least 4,000 women's centers.

- In 1970, the idea of a Rape Crisis Center was germinating in perhaps three minds in the United States. There are now 600 Rape Crisis Centers.

- Displaced Homemakers were first recognized in the early 1970s. Now there are over 1,000 displaced homemaker groups, programs, or services in the U.S. (Downie, 1988: 1-2).

The decade Downie described was one of expansion and regrouping. There were frustrations and disappointments as women's priorities confronted intractable budget constraints or institutional resistance to equity for women, but the reaction in the women's movement was a strengthening of resolve. In 1980, the "New Federalism" of the Reagan administration turned attention to the states at the same time that a new conservatism stalled action at the federal level. Failure to ratify the Equal Rights Amendment in 1982 led to a temporary vacuum as women's organizations at the national level regrouped and refocused. Nevertheless, the late 1970s and early 1980s generated what has become the prototype for action in the U.S. women's movement—permanent, flexible alliances among organizations to address issue priorities on the basis of opportunity and need.

The first multi-issue interorganizational advocacy networks were developed in states where the women's movement faced reversal or crisis. Typically, that crisis related to the elimination of a state commission on women. In the 1960s and 1970s, most states had established commissions on women paralleling the federal model. Usually appointed by the governor, the commission was generally the only state agency responsible for looking out for women's needs when economic and social policy was being formulated at the state level. But in the conservative shift at the end of the 1970s, a number of governors defunded or redirected the commissions, leaving no single agency on which women could depend to be their advocate with state policymakers.

In 1979, the elimination of commissions in the states of Washington and Wisconsin led to creation of the networking model on which others have built. Crisis showed organizations in both states the need to create an outside-of-government vehicle to draw women in the state together on broader fronts for common advocacy.

These networks, which grew out of connections made in coordinating state meetings before the 1977 National Women's Conference, were built upon support for principles in the Plan of Action and upon the premise that although participating groups were not required to subscribe to every recommendation in the plan, no participating group would work actively against plan issues.

This strategy made it possible for network task forces representing special constituencies to broaden their base of support.

For example, the Wisconsin Women's Network got behind proposed ground-breaking legislation that not only addressed sex law reform (Wisconsin had an antiquated law making intercourse between unmarried adults a punishable offense) but also prohibited discrimination based on sexual orientation. (Inclusion of the plank on sexual preference in the National Plan of Action had established the premise that groups advocating for lesbians were full participants in the women's movement.) Not every organization in the Wisconsin Women's Network took a position on the measure, but public education by means of statewide network and organizational newsletters generated widespread support for the legislation, which was enacted into law.

Unlike other coalitions in which the umbrella pretends to more importance than the organizations it represents, these new alliances were developed with the understanding that their role was primarily to support and reinforce the organizations whose efforts they orchestrated. Their purpose was to target achievable objectives, to build momentum on success. In selecting priority issues, they used the criteria of viability (readiness for results), critical need (issues most vital to large numbers), and strong member support (priorities most deeply shared).

In 1982, the National Women's Conference Committee, following its mandate to "stimulate the formation and growth of networks," orchestrated media events across the country to coincide with the July 1 deadline for ERA ratification. In 300 communities large and small, local and state groups announced the birth of new organizational networks as participants in "A New Day Beyond ERA." Organizing kits for the event included media and advocacy tips for local activists, as well as suggestions on how they could link with national efforts on eight Plan of Action issues: child care, education, elective/appointive office, employment, health, homemakers and family law, international issues, and violence. While the announced "National Task Forces" on these issues were largely mythical, they provided the model and the incentive to coordinate policy advocacy on the state and local level.

The NWCC then turned to large national organizations with local and state constituencies. The American Association of University Women (AAUW) responded in 1983 with a major two-year initiative, "Empowering Women: Achieving Change Through Advocacy Networks," directing its state divisions and 1,900 branches toward the network-building process. The National Council of Negro Women advocated Plan of Action networks. Leagues of Women Voters and NOW groups provided leadership in many states.

As network management models and strategies proved successful, the NWCC and AAUW undertook the process of conscious transplant by targeting states ripe for new networks and support and providing consultation to state leaders. Bylaws and operating policies were shared as prototypes to help diverse groups pull together in new sites.

In most states, resource sharing enabled networks to hire staff for organizational coordination and lobbying in state capitals. Sophisticated systems of outreach into legislative districts proved that networks could make the difference in mobilizing constituents and moving issues. Permanent linkages among organizations had been established in more than 30 states by 1988 and were underway in at least 10 more states in 1989. Only 10 states had done nothing as of 1989. Some states were also reviving moribund commissions on women, structured to involve greater legislative participation and thus less subject to gubernatorial whim than their predecessors.

During the 1980s, model laws have been passed in most states to address the policy gaps named in the National Plan of Action. Laws dealing with marital property reform, domestic abuse and sexual assault, pay equity, gender discrimination in insurance, child support enforcement, welfare reform, and family/medical leave have been grafted from state to state; some have been translated into federal statute. That process, too, has become more intentional and sophisticated.

National organizations have played an increasing role in both transplant and translation strategies in order to build public policy gains for women. New institutions have been created to help the process. For example, the Women's Economic Justice Center of the National Center for Policy Alternatives in Washington, D.C. disseminates information about model laws developed by state women's agenda projects. The Center's March 1989 leadership brief, *Policy Choices in Family and Medical Leave*, for example, analyzes laws now evolving in 20 states.

Since 1985 a growing number of national women's organizations have allied as a "Council of Presidents" in Washington, D.C. The council was formed initially for the exchange of information among a small group of leaders of the largest organizations. In over-organized Washington, there was no shortage of groups coalescing, often temporarily, to lobby on specific issues, but there was no forum where leaders responsible to diverse nationwide constituencies could shape larger strategies that would build momentum and impact. There was also a need to extend connections beyond largely white middle-class feminist organizations to include leaders from an increasingly diverse women's movement. (The media continues to describe a "white, middle-class" women's movement. However, Downie's survey reported that 56 percent of white and 65 percent of black women called themselves feminists, and that of 1,000 women-of-color groups nationwide, many organized around Plan of Action issues [Downie, 1988].)

In 1986, the Council of Presidents first focused priority action on the federal Civil Rights Restoration Act, legislation to restore the broad reach of antidiscrimination laws that had prevailed before the Supreme Court's 1984 decision in *Grove City v. Bell*. Seventeen groups committed themselves to public education and lobbying in order to breathe life into an issue congressional leaders and the media called dead. Efforts to move the legislation through Congress had been repeatedly derailed by conservatives' tactics linking it to the inflammatory issue of abortion. In 1986, organized media efforts and grassroots advocacy spearheaded by council organizations brought the issue back to life in Congress, even though the Civil Rights Restoration Act was not passed that year.

For the opening of the 100th Congress in 1987, council organizations agreed to concentrate on seven additional legislative priorities: family and medical leave, welfare reform, child care, pay equity, raising the minimum wage, protection of reproductive health care, and reintroduction of the Equal Rights Amendment. This focus provided the allied organizations with access to congressional leadership and to the press that they had not achieved separately.

Just as important, it spurred the orchestration of new national outreach strategies which allowed varying membership constituencies to be utilized for greatest impact. Collaboration with the Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues offered new opportunities to assess support and timing in an effort to move legislation. While the 100th Congress dealt more disappointments than successes, the Civil Rights Restoration Act was enacted in 1988, and important momentum was built for child care, family leave, pay equity, and raising the minimum wage.

For the 1988 elections a nonpartisan issues strategy was launched by the Council of Presidents under the banner of the "Women's Agenda." The strategy was built on the experience of Women's Vote Project coalitions reaching back to 1982, which had been primarily voter registration drives. The Women's Agenda served as a new means to produce a set of issue priorities, a kind of chorus on a shared song sheet, which invited organizations to add their verses. It was the first time since 1977 that so many groups had signed onto a multiple issue document. More than 40 organizations representing 10 million grassroots citizen-activists pledged to press the agenda "with candidates for national, state, and local office whatever their party."

The 1988 Women's Agenda included: (1) family policies assuring access to housing, child and elder care, family and medical leave, and equitable education; (2) economic opportunity, including occupational preparation, pay equity, raising the minimum wage and welfare reform; (3) comprehensive health care and safety, including long-term care, minimum health coverage, and reproductive health care; (4) a federal budget balancing adequate defense with global economic and human development; and (5) equality under the law including the Equal Rights Amendment, and protection of civil rights and reproductive choice.

These 40 groups cosponsored the first Women's Agenda Conference, which was coordinated by BPW/USA (National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc.) and held in Des Moines, Iowa, in January 1988. Over 2,000 women from around the country gathered in Des Moines to decide strategy for forwarding the Women's

Agenda during the election campaigns. Discussions centered on crucial policy issues such as education, health care, reproductive choice, and child care and on how these issues could be addressed in different electoral contexts. In 1989, the Women's Agenda became the legislative agenda for the women's movement in many states as networks organized state Women's Agenda conferences.

What the 1988 elections showed is that women are and will be an increasing factor in election outcomes. Analysts attribute the Bush election to his success in narrowing an early disadvantage among women by emphasizing such issues as child care. Women's groups are learning, as are political parties, how to assess and mobilize the women's vote and how to present the issues. Analysts working with Council of Presidents organizations have assisted in identifying what spurs women to act upon the issues in which they believe. Media consultants are assisting these groups in publicizing issues that disproportionately affect women.

Organizational leaders are consciously addressing the political realities in both parties that will shape policy strategies for women. The Coalition for Women's Appointments, coordinated by the National Women's Political Caucus, was formed well before the 1988 election for the purpose of getting more women appointed to high-level positions in whatever administration should be elected. Having worked methodically to identify qualified women in many fields who would be acceptable to one or the other (or both) political parties, the coalition was well-positioned to promote female appointments by the Bush administration.

Even before President Bush took office, Council of Presidents representatives met with him as well as with Senate Majority Leader George Mitchell. Strategy sessions with the

Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues further help orchestrate legislative activities inside the Capitol with constituent outreach and advocacy.

The Council of Presidents has recognized that women's issues become marginalized if they are perceived as partisan—if only Democratic or only Republican solutions are promoted. It was a 100th Congress controlled by Democrats that stalled pay equity, child care, family medical leave, and a number of other priorities. However, while hoping to avoid impasses like those it reached with the Reagan administration's social agenda, many groups carry grave concerns about Bush administration challenges to reproductive choice. The Council of Presidents' priorities for the 101st Congress include family and medical leave, child care, and health care—particularly reproductive and long-term health care. Acceptable components for bills in each area have been agreed upon as a basis for the long process of negotiation in Congress.

Nationally in the Council of Presidents, and in more than 30 statewide networks, organizations as diverse as the AAUW, the Mexican American Women's National Association, the Older Women's League, and the YWCA play crucial roles. Deeply rooted in their community bases, such organizations can measure the public temper and test key women's agenda issues in terms of both readiness and approach. Each organization contributes its special strengths and expertise. As the cutting edge of public policy change shifts to the states, statewide alliances across organizations will also continue to grow in number, strength, and sophistication.

Primed by hard-won experience in the past decade, the U.S. women's movement has the will and the capacity to lead a public change from self-interest to common concern. It has built strength, sensitivity, sophistication, and sisterhood across the diverse mainstream of American women. It has established an expanding effective delivery system, in essence creating its own national machinery at the federal level and in many states.

Now may be the time to ask the U.S. government to renew its official participation in the effort to achieve equity for women, as the governments of so many other countries do. Discussions of a new federal council for women are proceeding in the Council of Presidents and in Congress. Models employed by nations such as Canada are being examined, as is the experience of U.S. councils and commissions charged with assuring that public policy addresses women's needs.

The converging of experience, individual and national, has made this movement strong enough to take us where we need to go. Time and economic trends are on our side, even though the costs now borne by individuals remain too high. But proclamations of failure, whether from friend or foe, are clearly premature. The women's movement in America has proven its resiliency and staying power. Although the challenges of the National Plan of Action are not yet fulfilled, women's organizations have surely carried forth the plan's promise of American women on the move.

Women and International Development: The Road to Nairobi and Back

ARVONNE S. FRASER

IN TERMS OF WOMEN, the whole world is developing. There is no "developed" world when women's economic and political status is the measure and inequality impedes their progress. That was the consensus among the 15,000 women—including 2,000 Americans—who attended the historic world conference on women held in Nairobi, Kenya in 1985. Indeed, a recent study of the status of women in 99 countries documented that in no country are women the equals of men in health, education, employment, social security, or marriage. Only seven countries were rated "very good" in this study; 18 were "extremely poor" (Camp, 1988). The United States ranked third, behind Sweden and Finland. Interestingly, countries rated extremely poor in women's status were also extremely poor countries. Poverty and inequality go hand in hand.

Sixty percent of the conference participants came from the so-called developing world, and the conference report, *Forward-Looking Strategies* (United Nations, 1985), was adopted by 150 governments. No longer can it be asserted that the women's movement is a white, middle-class, U.S.-dominated phenomenon.

This achievement, however, was the result of over a century of coalition and consensus building, much of it led, organized, or modeled by American women. In 1840, Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Lucretia Mott strolled the streets of London together after being denied participation in the World Anti-Slavery Congress because they were female. Like many women before and after them—including the women active in the U.S. civil rights movement in the 1960s—Stanton and Mott had learned that those who opposed abrogating the rights of men could nevertheless be discriminators against women.

As they walked and talked, Mott and Stanton decided to hold a women's rights meeting after returning to the United States. The result was the famous Seneca Falls meeting in 1848, which could be said to be the beginning of an international women's movement.

Only a small number of U.S. women have been deeply involved internationally at any one time. However, by exercising four basic U.S. freedoms that citizens of many other nations do not have—freedom of speech, of association, of publication, and of travel—American women have been major contributors to international development. Americans assume these freedoms; others assume constraints. American women's ability to express new ideas, to call meetings to discuss those ideas, and to create new organizations to promote or implement ideas is widely known and often silently admired; it has also served as an impetus for change.

Public opinion is a strong force in the shaping of world events. Changing international public opinion depends on communication. International communication in Stanton's and Mott's day was by letter and through books, meetings, and travel. Historically, the printed word and meetings have been the primary vehicles for the development of an international women's movement and for women's individual development. With twentieth century technology, especially through radio and television, the whole world is linked almost instantaneously. As a result of the Nairobi conference, the world knows there is an international concern among women about their situation and a desire to do something to improve it.

It is not a coincidence that International Women's Year, the United Nations Decade for Women (1976-85), and women-in-development programs were all established shortly after a new wave of feminism swept the United States in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Because postage and printing have always been relatively cheap in the United States, reports and printed materials about women's activities produced by U.S. women's groups (or produced by others and reproduced by U.S.-based groups) have been circulated among active and interested women all over the world. Travel, meetings, and conferences have also been important elements of this communications network.

Stanton, Mott, and their contemporaries carried on massive letter writing and petition campaigns and organized international conferences to promote women's right to vote, to hold property in their own name, to be guardians of their children, and to have access to education, health services, and employment outside the home.

The recent contributions of American women to the newly revitalized international women's movement have been similar. They have defined and discussed new issues and given them publicity, including issues that may not affect U.S. women directly, such as female circumcision and bride burning. They have created new domestic and international networks or organizations around a wide variety of specific issues, including domestic violence, women's access to education and health services, and nondiscrimination in employment. They have conducted research, published, organized conferences, and raised money for their issues and for women's projects in developing countries. All this activity by American women has helped develop a new consciousness about the situation of women worldwide and to give women in other countries the courage and determination to speak out and organize on their own behalf. The U.N. Decade for Women made concern about women's status an international concern.

Networking among women internationally is not a new phenomenon, but since Nairobi, the process has been named and become more visible. U.S. women have not, by any means, been responsible for all the international networking, nor today are they even a major part of it. American women are not aware of, nor are they welcome at, every international women's meeting. Because of their geographic and language limitations, American women may not even be, proportionately, as internationally experienced or aware as many of their non-American counterparts. However, they have often been the model builders and idea generators because they have had the freedom, energy, and means to become so involved.

American pioneers in the international women's movement have been constantly, although often quietly, communicating with non-American women since the exclusion of women from the World Anti-Slavery Congress in 1840.

In 1888, in Washington, D.C., Stanton and Susan B. Anthony hosted the first International Congress of Women. Its goal was to recognize "universal sisterhood," to address questions of women, and deal with equality and justice (Bell and

Offen, 1983). This congress led to the organization of the International Council of Women, which held its centennial celebration in Washington in 1988.

The council was, however, too timid for Stanton and Anthony. In 1902, they, along with Carrie Chapman Catt, later founder of the League of Women Voters, organized what became the International Alliance for Women (IAW). The alliance, with headquarters in Europe, campaigned for women's suffrage, equal pay for equal work, improvements in women's education, health, and legal status, and women's equal participation in international affairs. In 1926, at its tenth congress in Paris, the IAW president stated that the goals of th international women's movement were equality, international understanding, and peace (Whittick, 1979; Fraser, 1987). That phrase, with one modification, became the theme of the U.N. Decade for Women: equality, development, and peace.

In San Francisco in 1945, Alice Paul of the U.S. National Woman's Party and Latin American feminists succeeded in having an equal rights provision included in the new U.N. Charter. (Paul also led the early effort to have an Equal Rights Amendment added to the U.S. Constitution.)

In 1947, the U.N. Commission on the Status of Women was established to "prepare recommendations and reports . . . on promoting women's rights in political, economic, civic, social, and educational fields . . . and to develop proposals to give effect to such recommendations" (Galey, 1979: 275). An intergovernmental body currently comprising representatives of over 30 nations, the commission has always included an American delegate. Four of the commission's early recommendations dealt with women's political rights, the legal rights of married women, education, and employment, including equal pay. International Women's Year (IWY) and the Decade for Women were commission initiatives, although the idea for IWY originated with nongovernmental women's groups having U.N. consultative status.

Thirty years of commission recommendations were combined into a new international bill of rights for women called the "Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women," which passed the U.N. General Assembly in 1979. Essentially, the convention is the equivalent of the U.S. Equal Rights Amendment spelled out in 16 substantive articles. (In international terminology, a convention is a document.) In 1980, Sarah Weddington of Texas, as the U.S. representative at the Copenhagen mid-decade world conference on women, signed that new convention on behalf of President Carter.

Now an international treaty ratified by 97 nations, the convention is the most concise and usable document to come out of the U.N. Decade for Women and a framework for equitable development. So many ratifications in so short a time are evidence of the increasing political efficacy of women. Billie Heller of California B'nai B'rith Women and others are leading the drive to have the United States ratify this convention. (Signing of a convention by governments only obligates governments to do nothing that contravenes the principles set forth in the convention. Ratification or accession obligates governments to pursue a policy of eliminating discrimination and to report on progress in that effort to the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination every four years.) A new global consortium, the International Women's Rights Action Watch (IWRAW), with headquarters in Minnesota and New York, is monitoring worldwide implementation of this convention.

Mexico City in 1975 was an important but somewhat traumatic stop on the road to Nairobi for U.S. women. The first world women's conference ever held under government auspices, the U.N. Conference of International Women's Year, and the parallel nongovernmental conference drew 6,000 women. About half came from North America and Mexico. For most American women it was a first personal experience with international conflict over ideology.

Expecting sisterhood and a discussion of feminism and equality issues, they often got strong doses of international politics laced with anti-American rhetoric. Some very vocal Southern Hemisphere women argued that better economic conditions for their countries should take precedence over equality for women; others argued that children and family should come before women's rights.

Controversy got the media's attention at the Mexico City conference. However, many U.S. women worked quietly and accomplished much. Irene Tinker brought together scholars from around the world in a women-in-development seminar that resulted in the book, *Women and World Development*, edited by Irene Tinker and Michele Bo Bramsen (1976). Michaela Walsh of New York created the now thriving Women's World Banking, a group that offers women entrepreneurs financial credit and experience. Margaret Snyder lobbied through the official conference the idea of a Women's Voluntary Fund, now called UNIFEM, to support Third World women's projects. The American organizers of the nongovernmental tribune, Rosalind Harris and Mildred Persinger, later set up the International Women's Tribune Center in New York, which played important roles at the Copenhagen and Nairobi conferences.

New publications also emerged: *WIN News*, published by Fran Hosken of Massachusetts to cover women's activities and organizations around the world, brought the issue of female circumcision before the public. Hosken was criticized strongly for interfering with traditional cultural practices, but by 1985, indigenous women's groups in the countries practicing female circumcision had taken up the issue. *ISIS*, the journal of a resource and documentation center for the international women's liberation movement, was organized by a European collective which included two expatriate Americans. The first issue of *ISIS* was a report on an international tribunal on crimes against women and described the activities of local women's liberation groups around the world—sometimes anonymously in order to protect the groups.

Another issue to gain prominence after Mexico City was the role women play or could play in the economies of developing countries—a factor generally overlooked in the programs mounted by the industrialized countries after World War II to assist the newly independent nations. The goal of these foreign assistance programs was to bolster the economies of the new nations and help meet the basic human needs of the people in those countries. The emphasis was on economic improvement and increases in the gross national product. The economic model was Western and the effort was often called "modernization."

The economic contributions of women were seldom considered in this new development effort. Relations between men and women were assumed to be part of the culture with which the modernization process would not tamper. The importance of agriculture was recognized but, again, the Western model was assumed; i.e., men farmed, women were housewives. In 1969, a Danish woman, Ester Boserup, wrote *Women's Roles in Economic Development*, challenging this theory by documenting women's importance in agricultural production in developing countries and their exclusion from the formal economic sector. Her book, published in English in 1970, profoundly influenced U.S., European, and Third World women with international interests (Tinker, 1983). The phrase "women in development" (WID) was coined in the early 1970s to describe and give focus to efforts to ensure that women's roles would no longer be ignored.

In 1973, one year after the U.N. General Assembly had approved the recommendation of the Commission on the Status of Women for International Women's Year, U.S. Senator Charles Percy, an Illinois Republican, offered a women-in-development amendment to the U.S. Foreign Assistance Act. The amendment called for U.S. assistance to "give particular attention to those programs, projects, and activities which tend to integrate women into the national economies of foreign countries, thus improving their status and assisting the total development effort" (Section 113 of the Foreign Assistance Act of 1961, as amended). The phrase "thus improving their status" was significant. It set out the relationship between women's status and the development effort. The amendment had been drafted by Mildred Marcy, former head of the Overseas Education Fund of the League of Women Voters. It was guided through Congress by Irene Tinker and a coalition of leaders of traditional women's organizations and new feminist groups. Tinker, a political scientist who had lived and worked overseas, was one of those influenced by Boserup's book.

By the time of the 1980 world conference on women in Copenhagen, virtually all nations giving foreign aid, including the United States, had women-in-development offices. An active WID donor network funded the participation of hundreds of women from developing countries, as well as numerous workshops, at the Copenhagen conference. About 1,000 U.S. women attended that conference. Again, international political issues—specifically the Israel-Palestine question—dominated the official conference and media coverage of the nongovernmental forum.

By this time, however, the International Center for Research on Women, the Equity Policy Center, the Overseas Education Fund, the International Division of the National Council of Negro Women, and a consortium of WID research scholars in U.S. universities had been established and were gaining overseas development experience working on WID field projects. A body of literature on women in developing countries was being created. Women leaders in those countries were being identified and smaller conferences were being held, which included U.S., European, and Third World women.

In the early 1980s, American women with international interests could be divided into three groups: those with women-in-development interests, those working in population and family planning organizations, and those concerned with women's status and rights issues. These women were inside government, in nonprofit organizations, and at universities; a few were in major foundations—Ford, Carnegie, and Rockefeller. Each group was part of an international network of peers, and their identification with feminism ranged from cool to ardent. Preparations for and follow-up to the Nairobi conference brought these various groups together.

The Wingspread Foundation in Racine, Wisconsin and the Rockefeller Foundation conference center in Bellagio, Italy hosted several international preparatory meetings organized by U.S. women, with the support of Jill Sheffield, a program officer at the Carnegie Corporation, and a private female donor. Attending these meetings were women leaders with international experience from every region of the world, including American black and white women. African women were prominent in these preparatory conferences, for they had lobbied hard to have the 1985 conference held in Africa. The Ford Foundation helped fund the DAWN (Development Alternatives with Women for a New Era) group of Third World feminist intellectuals, some of whom also participated in the Wingspread and Bellagio meetings. Among the leadership network preparing for Nairobi, there was agreement that the conference would not be an occasion merely to mark the end of the U.N. Decade for Women, but rather an occasion to assess and celebrate women's progress and to develop specific strategies for the future.

The Bellagio conference preceding Nairobi saw a subtle shift in focus away from dealing with women's projects per se to examining how women could better use the political systems of their own countries to establish policies and programs to improve women's situations. This resulted in numerous legal and political sessions at the Nairobi Nongovernmental Organizations' Forum and the highlighting at the official U.N. conference of the U.N. Convention as an important international mechanism for achieving equality for women and as a framework for women's equitable participation in the development process. Because there was also concern that Nairobi could not physically accommodate all the women who wanted to attend, a U.S. initiative was a paper circulated worldwide on how to participate in the international women's conference without leaving home. It urged women to host local meetings to develop strategies for equality by the year 2000.

The 2,000 U.S. women who went to Nairobi ranged from those taking their first trip overseas to experienced professionals leading workshops or attending as U.S. delegates. Maureen Reagan, the lead U.S. delegate to the official conference, deserves much credit for getting the inflammatory political references removed from the conference document, thus obtaining consensus on adoption of the *Forward-Looking Strategies*, the U.N. conference document.

The forward-looking emphasis proved effective. Fifteen thousand people traveled to Nairobi. Their actions were covered by 1,500 journalists, and millions of women were avid participants at home—reading about the conference, watching it on TV, listening to radio programs about it, and developing their own strategies for the future. The Nairobi experience generated new momentum, especially at the state and local levels in the United States, and new American efforts to collaborate internationally. Since Nairobi, new groups have formed and new activities have been organized; examples include the Global Fund for Women, Family Care International, the World Bank's Safe Motherhood Initiative, the Eleanor Roosevelt International Caucus of Political Women, and the Mt. Holyoke College International Conference on Women's Education. These, along with the Association for Women in Development, the Trickle-Up program, and the groups growing out of the Mexico City conference mentioned above, are only a few of the U.S. women's groups working internationally.

The interrelationships between women's status and their integration into the economic development process have been a source of intellectual and programmatic tension in the United States and worldwide. This parallels the confusion generated when improving a country's economy through growth in its gross national product and meeting basic human

"15,000 women attended the historic world conference on women held in Nairobi, Kenya, in 1985." *Deborah Ziska, photographer*

needs are assumed to be mutually compatible and easily attainable goals. The inclusion of women in the development discussion has illustrated the complexities of the development process. The question of whether economic concerns are of primary importance in determining political and social status, or whether political and social status largely determines an individual's or group's economic status is a chicken and egg question.

In the short interval of human history encompassed by the period between Seneca Falls and Nairobi, increasing numbers of women in the United States and around the world have been educated, entered paid employment, become voters, been elected or appointed to decisionmaking positions, become healthier, had fewer children, and lived longer.

Women have established new fields of endeavor—women in development is but one example. Women have initiated or helped pass numerous pieces of legislation, including antidiscrimination laws.

There is now a new generation of women leaders and women-in-development experts in the so-called developing world. These women are not only literate; many are well educated, proficient in more than one language, and experienced at international meetings. Many hold important posts in their own governments, at universities, or in international organizations. They resent any implication that all women in developing countries are barefoot, pregnant, and working in the fields, even though some of them were rural girls who became educated, and many of them have mothers and grandmothers who are village women. Their work on behalf of women, like that of their American counterparts, is not always visible, but it is effective. Instead of defining equality as parity with men, they are asserting that until men become more responsible for families, true equality cannot be achieved. That issue is not one American women have effectively addressed. In terms of women the whole world *is* still developing.

Women and the Peace Movement

KATE MCGUINNESS

AMERICAN WOMEN ARE A FORCE to be reckoned with in the organized peace movement. Not only are there a number of national women's peace organizations with hundreds of local affiliates—and many independent local women's peace groups—but women are leaders in peace-organizations whose membership is open to men as well as women.

Women are motivated to work for peace for a variety of reasons, ranging from traditional concerns about the safety and security of their children and grandchildren to concerns more theoretically feminist in nature. The approaches and ideologies of the various women's peace organizations tend to reflect this diversity. Some focus their efforts largely on seeking changes in national defense and foreign policies and international relations; others, believing that patriarchal social institutions are inimical to the creation of conditions for a peaceful world, seek fundamental changes in personal and social attitudes and behavior. Nevertheless, groups across the spectrum of the peace movement are increasingly incorporating the concerns of women for equality and social justice into their agendas.

Women owe their present influence in the peace movement not only to their own hard work and commitment, but also to the efforts of women who labored for peace before them. Historically, the most active periods of women's participation in the peace movement have been the periods when women have claimed increased roles and rights for themselves in society as a whole. In this regard, it is no coincidence that women are among those who have brought to the peace movement a vision of peace that incorporates issues of social justice.

For the most part, women were excluded from the formal ranks of the early and mid-nineteenth century peace movement. Women were not permitted to join the American Peace Society until 1877, more than 50 years after its founding (Curti, 1936). The attitude prevailing through much of the century was articulated by such male peace leaders as William Ladd and Noah Worcester, who told women that their maternal instincts should compel them to work for peace, but that they should do so within the framework of their own charitable organizations—not within the peace movement (Curti, 1936).

There were notable exceptions, however. By 1826, nearly half of the members of the Portsmouth branch of the Massachusetts Peace Society were women. In the North East Resistance Society, formed in 1838, women were entitled to the same privileges as men, including voting rights, decisionmaking, and committee membership (Curti, 1929).

During the latter part of the nineteenth century, women not only exerted greater influence in the general peace movement but took more independent initiatives for peace. In the Universal Peace Union, founded in 1866, women constituted one-third of the membership, holding office and participating in decisionmaking at all levels (DeBenedetti, 1980). In 1873, Julia Ward Howe organized women's peace festivals in several cities; these festivals continued to be held for a number of years (Swerdlow, 1984). The peace department of the Women's Christian Temperance Union, headed by Hannah

Bailey, worked extensively to promote the cause of peace in the late 1880s.

The growth of women's clubs and women's participation in social reform movements (notably suffrage, settlement houses, and women's union groups) provided a precedent for separate women's action for peace and produced organizers and leaders who were enlisted to work for peace. Jane Addams, Carrie Chapman Catt, Emily Green Balch, and Lillian Wald were among these leaders. The traditional appeal to women's "maternal instincts" also served successfully to unite women the world over on behalf of peace.

It was in the twentieth century that the first clearly defined women's peace movement emerged. Women mobilized rapidly to fill the void left by traditional peace groups that failed to respond to the outbreak of World War I. Answering a specific call to action from European women—Rosika Schwimmer of Hungary and Emmeline Pethick-Lawrence of England, in particular—women in the United States offered some of the strongest opposition to the war in Europe.

In 1914, 1,500 women marched in a New York City peace parade to protest the war. Several months later, the Woman's Peace Party was formed at a January 1915 conference in Washington, D.C. that drew over 3,000 women (Steinson, 1982). The Woman's Peace Party offered tangible solutions to the European conflict, including mediation by neutral nations and international nonmilitary sanctions. The group's other goals included women's suffrage and the elimination of the economic causes of war. Within months the Woman's Peace Party claimed 40,000 members and 165 chapters throughout the United States (Elshtain, 1980).

American women made significant contributions to the development of an international women's peace movement.

Jane Addams, president of the Woman's Peace Party, chaired a 1915 international congress of women at The Hague that was attended by over 1,000 women from 12 countries. The Woman's Peace Party platform was endorsed by this congress, which also adopted a resolution to send envoys to world leaders requesting that a conference of neutrals be convened to begin the process of mediation. The passage of this resolution relied heavily on American leadership (International Congress of Women, 1915).

In 1918, American women attended a second international meeting held at the same time as the peace talks at Versailles. The three-year-old international women's peace network born at the Hague congress adopted a formal structure and became the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom (WILPF). American leadership was again key: Jane Addams was elected president and Emily Green Balch secretary-treasurer. The Woman's Peace Party became the United States branch of WILPF (International Congress of Women, 1918).

WILPF condemned the Treaty of Versailles, saying it established a peace that granted too many privileges to the victors and required reparations that would mean poverty for many Europeans, conditions that WILPF members believed would lead to future wars (ibid.). In addition to working for peace, the group addressed issues related to economic injustice and to ensuring an equal place for women in society (Degen, 1939).

This was an important period for the development of women's role in the peace movement. American women created a network that enabled them to establish a solid presence in the peace movement, both in the United States and abroad. By addressing issues of women's rights and economic inequality, they incorporated an idea of social justice into the

NO MORE WAR
WOMENS INTERNATIONAL LEAGUE FOR PEACE AND FREEDOM
WASH. STATE BRANCH, SEATTLE SEPT. 22-23-1922

The Washington State branch of the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, 1922.
© *The WILPF Collection, Swarthmore College Peace Collection*

peace movement, a significant development at the time (DeBenedetti, 1980).

In recent years, there has been an increase in the number of women's peace organizations. Seven of the nine national women's groups (which are listed at the end of this chapter) have been formed since 1980. In addition, there are more independent local women's peace groups than ever before. The 1988-89 edition of the *Peace Resource Book*, a guide to peace organizations, issues, and literature, lists 7,000 peace groups in the United States. Nearly 550 of these are women's organizations, including national groups, their local affiliates, and independent local groups. Just four years earlier, this directory listed fewer than 200 women's peace organizations (Institute for Defense and Disarmament Studies, 1984 and 1988).

Women's peace organizations have evolved and matured.

For a long time entirely dependent on volunteers, many are now professionally staffed. For example, the Women's Action for Nuclear Disarmament (WAND) and WILPF had professional staffs of 10 to 15 and budgets of approximately half a million dollars each in 1988. While foundations provide some support, most organizations rely primarily on membership dues, fees from special events, contributions, and literature sales for their income.

The growing number of women's peace organizations represents a concerted effort on the part of women to respond to increasing conventional and nuclear militarization. These organizations address issues ranging from military and foreign policy (nuclear and conventional disarmament, comprehensive test ban treaties, U.S. global intervention, and military spending) to social justice (economic inequity, racism, and women's rights). A more radically feminist segment of the peace movement sees patriarchy as the underlying cause of violence, advocating extensive social change aimed at dismantling male-dominated social structures. Women's peace groups implement many strategies to attain their goals, among them political pressure and lobbying, grassroots organizing and education, extensive networking, and occasionally civil disobedience.

Women have also had an impact on other organizations in the peace movement. Over half of the individuals identified as contacts for the groups listed in the *Peace Resource Book* are women. Groups such as the Mobilization for Survival, SANE/FREEZE, Fellowship of Reconciliation, and the War Resisters League report that women and men are fairly equally represented in staff positions and on their boards. Each has a feminist or women's task force at the national level and some, such as SANE/FREEZE and the Mobilization for Survival, encourage their local staffs or affiliates to establish similar task forces. Task Force activities range from including women's concerns, such as safety while canvassing and access to leadership roles in training sessions for canvassers at SANE/FREEZE to incorporating a feminist analysis of militarism into all of the work at the War Resisters League.

Many of the recently founded national women's peace organizations seek a greater voice for women in military and foreign policy formation—areas where they have been traditionally excluded—in order to create a safer, more peaceful world. For example, WAND develops strategies that effectively involve women in the political process at all levels by providing written materials and coordinating training sessions on electoral and lobbying processes. The WAND political action committee (WAND PAC) provides campaign support, endorsements, and financial contributions to candidates with disarmament agendas. (In 1986, 32 of the 46 candidates endorsed by WAND PAC were elected.) Another group, Peace Links, has developed a network of 170 prominent women, among them elected officials, who are committed to finding alternatives to the arms race. WAND, WILPF, and Women Strike for Peace have active legislative offices in Washington, D.C. with staffs that lobby Congress on foreign policy, the military budget, and disarmament issues.

The relationship between growing military budgets and decreased spending for social services and the trend toward the "feminization of poverty" has become an increasingly important issue for women's peace groups. This connection provides one basis for the continued integration of social justice issues into the peace movement.

The Women's Budget, first published by WILPF in 1985, illustrates how redirecting 50 percent of the military budget into social programs would benefit women and their families and create a national security defined by a more equitable economic system, rather than by military strength. The Women's Peace Initiative is working to unite an already strong women's movement behind peace issues, especially reducing military spending; WPI members see this as a necessity for the further success of a women's agenda. In fact, nearly every major national peace organization includes among its priorities some reference to the need for funding social programs instead of the arms race.

Social justice issues provide common ground for networking with organizations and people traditionally outside of the peace movement. WILPF's 1988-89 program includes a racial justice campaign designed to train members to recognize and take action against, and establish networks with groups working against, racial violence. The Jobs With Peace Campaign, which calls for a complete change in national budget priorities, has been somewhat successful in enlisting the support of working-class women of color for the peace movement (Rizzo-Harvi, 1987).

Although the radical feminist perspective in the peace movement has been limited, one of its significant contributions has been to provide an analysis of violence that is structural in nature; that is, identifying patriarchy as a root cause of violence. The Women's Pentagon Action of the early 1980s, which drew over 1,000 women to protest at the Pentagon, regarded patriarchy as a source of political, economic, and personal violence, and sought to activate women in restructuring society. WILPF intends to study the connections between international violence (economic, military and cultural domination) and personal violence against women (rape, battering, and abuse). The feminist task force of the War Resisters League has published a number of articles and pamphlets on the relationship between militarism and violence against women; the resource handbook of the Women's Encampment contains similar information.

The empowerment of women is a key function of every national women's peace organization. Groups work to educate women about military issues, but at the same time assure them they need not be experts to express their concerns about the arms race. Women Strike for Peace, WAND, and Peace Links, for example, train women as speakers, enabling them to educate and mobilize other in their own communities. WILPF offers three leadership development programs for women designed to familiarize them with global peace efforts and feminist political analysis, to build skills in group process, and to develop lobbying, public relations, fundraising, and membership outreach skills.

Consensus and nonhierarchical organizational models, designed to facilitate broad participation in decisionmaking, are important processes that the women's peace groups have learned from the women's movement. Some national women's peace groups, such as Women Strike for Peace and the Women's Encampment, have made a conscious choice to use consensus as their form of decisionmaking and are committed to decentralized organizational structures. Local groups, because of their smaller size, may be more inclined than larger national groups to use these models.

Women continue their history of international networking. WILPF is part of the largest international network, with sister organizations in 28 countries and nongovernmental organization ("NGO") status at the United Nations. Women for a Meaningful Summit has organized an international women's presence at summit meetings since 1985. The Women's Encampment was begun in solidarity with European women's peace camps to organize American protests against the deployment of Pershing II and Cruise missiles in Europe. Peace Links and Grandmothers for Peace coordinate exchanges between U.S. and Soviet women. Local women's peace groups support international networking as well, by hosting speakers from abroad and attending international conferences.

It is widely believed in the peace movement that women are its mainstay; while no statistics exist to document this perception, the substantial proportion of women among activists in peace organizations—whether women's organizations or not—is suggestive. Certainly, organizations are reaching out and mobilizing large numbers of women to work creatively and effectively for peace. Many of them do so with a commitment to empower women by using grassroots organizing techniques.

Any true assessment of the last several decades of work toward greater equality between women and men must include the activities of women's peace organizations to increase U.S. women's voice in the formation of their country's foreign and military policy. History proved the wisdom of the International Congress of Women's objections to the terms of the Versailles Treaty 70 years ago. Today, as then, women bring to the peace movement a multi-issue perspective that is valuable for understanding more fully the nature and causes of violence, and hence how it can best be eradicated.

National Women's Peace Organizations

Grandmothers for Peace, 909 12th Street, Suite 118,
Sacramento, California 95814, (916) 444-5080

This group, founded in 1982, believes that the possession of nuclear weapons and the intent to use them is morally wrong. The fear that their grandchildren may be the last generation has motivated its members to work for peace. As of 1988, there were 3,000 people on its mailing list, 500 dues-paying members, and contacts with women in 27 countries.

Mothers Embracing Nuclear Disarmament (MEND), P.O. Box 2309, La Jolla, California 92038, (619) 454-3343

Using the universal appeal of motherhood and education about the dangers of nuclear weapons, MEND seeks to inspire a mutual commitment among all nations to eliminate nuclear weapons. Founded in 1985, it had grown to over 1,600 members in 1988.

Peace Links, 747 8th Street, S.E., Washington, D.C. 20003, (202) 544-0805

Peace Links, a nonpartisan organization begun in 1982 by Betty Bumpers, currently has a network of 30,000 women throughout the United States. The group works to increase a mainstream constituency of women behind peace issues. The 1988 program areas included mobilizing a peace vote, improving U.S.-Soviet relations through "citizen diplomacy," and educating high school students about nuclear weapons issues.

Women for a Meaningful Summit (WMS), 2401 Virginia Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20037, (202) 785-8497

WMS was founded as an ad hoc coalition, comprised primarily of women's peace groups, in order to create a voice for women at the 1985 summit meeting. Key activities include meetings with Soviet leader Gorbachev and U.S. State Department officers, and an assembly hosted by Margarita

Papandreou in Greece. The board of directors represents a worldwide grassroots network, with four million members in the United States. Congresswomen Claudine Schneider and Barbara Boxer cochair the group.

Women's Action for Nuclear Disarmament (WAND), P.O. Box 153, New Town Branch, Boston, Massachusetts 02258, (617) 643-6740

WAND seeks to empower women politically to shape U.S. policies toward a world free from the threat of nuclear war. Founded in 1980 by Helen Caldicott, WAND now has over 11,000 members and 80 affiliates in 35 states. It has focused on election issues, developing a grassroots legislative lobbying network, and political skills building. WAND has also established a separate education fund and a political action committee.

Women's Encampment for a Future of Peace and Justice, 5440 Route 96, Romulus, New York 14511, (607) 869-5825

The women's peace camp was organized in 1983 by the Upstate Feminist Peace Alliance (which had been a part of the Women's Pentagon Action), and the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom as an American response to the deployment of Cruise and Pershing II missiles in Europe. In 1983, over 12,000 women visited the camp for actions at the U.S. Army depot at Seneca, New York. Women continue to live at the camp as an ongoing presence against militarism, though their numbers are much reduced from the camp's earlier days. Currently, Women's Encampment has a mailing list of 8,000 people.

Women's International League for Peace and Freedom (WILPF), 1213 Race Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19107, (215) 563-7110

WILPF is one of the oldest peace organizations in the United States, and, with affiliates in 28 countries, the most internationally oriented women's group. There are 120 branches in the United States, with approximately 15,000 members. WILPF has worked extensively on peace and justice issues since its beginning. Its 1988 goals include organizing a racial justice campaign, promoting activism against U.S. global intervention, and working toward disarmament by the year 2000.

Women's Peace Initiative, 2 Lamson Place, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139, (617) 868-8421

Begun in 1987, the Women's Peace Initiative is a national network that seeks to unite an already organized women's constituency behind its five-point peace platform. The platform calls for achieving nuclear disarmament, reducing the threat of conventional war, ending military intervention, reordering federal spending priorities, and promoting equality for women. The group is working to build both its political and grassroots constituency.

Women Strike for Peace (WSP), 145 South 13th Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19107, (215) 923-0861

Women Strike for Peace began in 1961 when over 100,000 women gathered to protest nuclear testing in the atmosphere. Their current network numbers 10,000; there are 11 local chapters. The group focuses on grassroots education and organizing and recently distributed 50,000 copies of a primer on the Strategic Defense Initiative ("Star Wars"). WSP is also organizing a lobby-by-proxy project in which signatories authorize the group to lobby for peace issues on their behalf. Over 20,000 proxies had been collected by 1988.

The Emergence and Growth of Women's Studies Programs[1]

MARIAM CHAMBERLAIN

ONE OF THE MAJOR achievements of women in higher education over the last two decades is the evolution of women's studies as a formal area of teaching and research. The idea of women's studies emerged on college and university campuses in the late 1960s as feminist scholars, influenced by the women's movement, began to question the content of the academic curriculum. The progress of women's studies since then has been phenomenal. Against all odds—financial, political, and intellectual—a cadre of committed women scholars, joined by a few men, succeeded in gaining recognition for the legitimacy of the field and led the way to the establishment of courses and degree programs throughout the country.

According to a recent survey of campus trends conducted by the American Council on Education, over two-thirds of all universities, nearly half of all four-year colleges, and about one-fourth of all two-year institutions now offer women's studies courses. Moreover, the world of feminist scholarship today includes over 50 centers or institutes for research on women, numerous professional journals for the publication of the new knowledge, and more than a hundred feminist bookstores across the country.

How did all this come about? Although women's studies as such did not come into being until the late 1960s, courses on women were not entirely unknown prior to that time. They were, however, few and far between. One of the earliest that we know of was a course on the "Status of Women in the United States," offered by the department of sociology at the University of Kansas in 1892. There were also some examples in the early decades of the twentieth century, such as the course given in the Economics Department at the University of Washington in 1912 by Professor Theresa McMahon. The subject was "Women and Economic Evolution, or the Effects of Industrial Change on the Status of Women," a topic that is even more relevant at the present time than it was then. Courses in women's history began to appear in the 1960s, and more systematic studies of women across the disciplines followed.

Women's studies appears to have originated on the East and West Coasts more or less simultaneously. In 1969, a group of feminists at Cornell University organized a conference that was concerned with issues raised by the women's movement. One of the results of the conference was the formation of a faculty seminar to examine the portrayal of women in the curriculum of the social and behavioral sciences. The seminar led in turn to the establishment at Cornell of an interdisciplinary course on women, followed in 1970 by a coordinated female studies program consisting of six courses from different departments of the university. At about the same time, a similar effort was under way in California, where a women's studies program was started at San Diego State University. It included courses such as "Women in Literature," "Women in Comparative Cultures," and "Contemporary Issues in the Liberation of Women."

From then on, women's studies courses and programs spread rapidly, both in the United States and abroad. At the same time, women's studies, which started as a marginal and not quite respectable area of academic endeavor, has become increasingly institutionalized and integrated into the liberal arts curriculum as a whole. The first step was to move from individual courses to the organization of coordinated degree programs. Today there are interdisciplinary degree programs and minors or joint majors with specific fields.

The next step in the institutionalization process was the development of fellowship programs in women's studies. That came in 1972 when the Ford Foundation initiated faculty and dissertation awards for research on the role of women in society. At the time, some feminists felt that the recognition that such a national fellowship program bestowed on the field was at least as important as the funding it provided. In any event, it was soon followed by fellowships in women's studies from other foundations and from government agencies such as the National Endowment for the Humanities and the Women's Educational Equity Act program.

The third step was the formation of women's studies research centers, beginning in 1974 at Stanford and Wellesley. Of the 50 or so centers in existence today, the majority are campus-based. The others are independent centers with research programs that tend to be policy oriented rather than curriculum oriented. All of the centers provide resources for research about women, strengthening the efforts of individual scholars. The centers offer such facilities as libraries, staff support, forums for the exchange of ideas, assistance in project development, and financial aid. Collectively, they have made an essential contribution to the advancement of women's studies, its capacities, and its recognition in the academic community. The National Council for Research on Women is a consortium of these centers that was formed in 1982 to facilitate collaborative work.

A fourth and essential element in the evolution and institutionalization of women's studies was the development of scholarly journals and textbooks. Journals such as *Women's Studies* and *Feminist Studies* first appeared in 1972, and the leading journal, *SIGNS: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, made its debut in 1975. Textbooks, while not abundant even today, also began to appear around this time. Some of the earliest texts came in courses about women in the law. Comprehensive introductory textbooks were generally not available until the 1980s.

Next came the establishment of the National Women's Studies Association (NWSA) in 1977. The purpose of the association, as stated in the preamble to its constitution, is "to further the social, political, and professional development of women's studies throughout the country and the world, at every educational level and in every educational setting." NWSA now has about 3,000 members, including scholars, administrators, community activists, and other women's studies practitioners as well as school teachers. NWSA serves an important function, then, in spreading women's studies beyond higher education and into schools and the community.

A further milestone in the evolution of women's studies was the establishment during the 1980s of professorships or chairs in women's studies on various campuses. At the present time, there are upwards of about a dozen such chairs in colleges and universities across the country, for example, at Brown, Rutgers, and the University of Southern California.

There were two other notable developments during the 1980s. In 1983, the Center for Education Statistics of the U.S. Department of Education began to include data on degrees earned in women's studies in its annual reports of earned degrees conferred; for purposes of official data collection, women's studies is now classified as an interdisciplinary field. This is surely a major sign of recognition and institutionalization. And finally, University Microfilms International, which maintains a unique information service on doctoral dissertations and master's theses, now publishes catalogues of dissertations in women's studies. It reported over 2,000 dissertations in women's studies in the period 1981-84.

Clearly, women's studies, once considered a fad, is now firmly established in higher education. Moreover, its influence on the curriculum extends beyond women's studies courses as new knowledge has been brought to bear on the mainstream liberal arts disciplines. One of the circumstances facilitating this process of integration is the fact that women's studies programs are rarely organized as separate departments. In nearly all institutions, women's studies is an interdepartmental program, headed by a director or coordinator rather than a department chair. The curriculum usually consists of an introductory interdisciplinary core course, followed by a selection of courses offered by various departments. These might include, for example, courses such as the "Psychology of Women," "Women in Colonial America," "Images of Women in Literature," or "Women in the Economy." A recent study of women in higher education, carried out under the aegis of the Russell Sage Foundation, shows a steady growth in the number and size of these interdisciplinary programs.

How women's studies has affected the rest of the curriculum is more difficult to determine. One of the main objectives of women's studies from the beginning was not only to compensate for the absence of a women's perspective in the traditional curriculum by adding new courses, but also to bring the new perspectives into the so-called "mainstream" liberal arts

"Women's studies, once considered a fad, is now firmly established in higher education." Here Phyllis Palmer (center) teaches a class in the fifteen-year-old women's studies department at The George Washington University.
Courtesy Department of Women's Studies, The George Washington University

curriculum that is taken by all students, men as well as women. This is not easily done since the new perspectives often challenge the basic assumptions of the methodologies of the disciplines. As women's studies scholars have pointed out, you can't simply add the idea that the world is round to the idea that it is flat and go on as before. You need to rethink the whole universe.

The first formal effort to assess the impact of women's studies on the liberal arts curriculum was undertaken by a group of women faculty members at Princeton in 1976. The project was limited to an examination of the introductory courses in four disciplines that have been among the most active in women's studies—history, sociology, psychology, and English. Some 355 course syllabi from 172 departments in a variety of institutions were collected and analyzed, and supplementary information was gathered through questionnaires sent to department heads, directors of women's studies programs, and publishers of textbooks. It was found that, with few exceptions, the study of women was being given little or no attention. Department chairs reported that the presence of women in their departments, and to a lesser extent the existence of women's studies programs on campus, were important in determining whether individual faculty members were taking heed of the new scholarship on women and incorporating it into the basic courses. Based on these findings, it was concluded that special efforts were needed to inform faculty members more broadly of the nature and relevance of the new material on women to their respective fields.

Since that time various kinds of curriculum integration or mainstreaming activities have been undertaken. One was the preparation of a monograph on *Teaching Women's History*, written by Gerda Lerner (1981), a leading women's studies scholar and historian. Lerner's monograph, which was published and widely distributed by the American Historical Association, provides a guide to relevant topics and source material, including material from other disciplines, making it easier for faculty members to incorporate women's history into existing courses. Other curriculum integration projects have taken the form of faculty workshops, summer institutes, conferences, and faculty development or curriculum revision programs. Many of these have been funded by government agencies or private foundations.

By 1981, a directory of curriculum integration programs prepared by the Center for Research on Women at Wellesley listed nearly 50 projects. One of the more ambitious during this period was an institution-wide effort at Wheaton College in Norton, Massachusetts, to integrate the study of women into the entire liberal arts curriculum. The Wheaton project culminated in a national conference in 1983 that was attended by 250 women and men who were involved in curriculum integration projects or were interested in initiating them. According to the conference report, published in 1984, the project was intended as "both a spur to the process of gender balance in the curriculum of American higher education and a means of expanding the network of those undertaking this effort."

Summer institutes in women's studies for faculty members have been held by the Great Lakes Colleges Association and at Memphis State University. Duke University has conducted summer institutes in women's studies for high school as well as college teachers, with a particular focus on intersections of race, sex, and class. Recently, the New Jersey Department of Higher Education gave Rutgers University $362,500 for a statewide project entitled "Integrating the Scholarship on Gender." The project will involve all of the state's 56 public and private colleges and is expected to provide a model for other states.

Today there are, all told, over 100 curriculum integration projects in process in colleges and universities. Many of these have been funded by the Ford Foundation. For example, one program initiated in 1985 with Ford support is designed to introduce new perspectives on women into the curriculum of 10 formerly all-male colleges. As part of the program, Columbia University has restructured its well-known "Contemporary Civilization" curriculum. Similarly, at Stanford University, the course on "Western Civilization" required of all undergraduates was revised to include material by and about women and minorities as well as studies of non-Western cultures. In 1988, this course was replaced by a new course entitled "Cultures, Ideas and Values."

What is the nature of the changes that are being made? In what ways and to what extent has the new scholarship on women affected the disciplines since the exploratory Princeton study of 1976? In recent years several volumes of essays on this subject have appeared. One of the foremost is *The Prism of Sex* (Sherman and Beck, 1981), which shows how feminist research has challenged the premises and content of six disciplines—history, literature, psychology, sociology, philosophy, and political science. Another volume, entitled *Men's Studies Modified*, edited by Dale Spender (1981), looks at the impact of feminism on a number of other academic disciplines including anthropology, economics, and biology, as well as professional fields such as education and law.

The new scholarship has challenged the traditional assumptions of the academic disciplines as well. For example, in history we are familiar with periods labeled as "the Dark Ages" and "the Renaissance," but feminist scholars have shown that the way we have identified historical periods such as these is based primarily on a male perspective. The female experience in those eras was sharply different, indeed, the opposite from that of men. The Dark Ages were a period of ascendancy for women and the Renaissance a period of contraction in women's roles in society. In other words, according to feminist historians, there was no renaissance for women in the Renaissance.

Another example can be found in the field of economics, where it used to be common practice in studies of labor force participation to examine a combined sample of men and women, or even to limit the sample to men and assume that the conclusions applied to women as well. The labor force participation of women as distinct from that of men has been studied exhaustively by feminist scholars, male and female, over the last 20 years. As a result, it is now known that the response to wage changes is considerably more complex than the textbooks had assumed, and that the labor force participation of women depends not only on wages, but on decisions regarding the allocation of time between work inside and outside the home, the income needs of the family, the stage in the life cycle, the availability of part-time or flex-time work, the value placed on leisure, and possibly other considerations. In the process of studying all these elements, we have learned a great deal more than we knew before about labor force participation as such—of men as well as of women.

History and economics are only two of the fields in which feminist scholars have made an impact. In psychology they have questioned the long-accepted Freudian theories of female behavior and in literature they have uncovered lost writers, minorities as well as women, whose work has much to contribute to our literary heritage and to the richness of the liberal arts curriculum. Course materials in these fields now include works such as Jean Baker Miller's *Toward a New Psychology of Women* (1976) and Paul Lauter's *Reconstructing American Literature* (1983).

The changes chronicled here are ongoing. Women's studies as a field of scholarship continues to grow, and the new knowledge is gradually being integrated into the liberal arts curriculum. The dramatic increase in college enrollment by women over the last 20 years has given added impetus to the acceptance of women's studies on campus. In the long run, however, the objective of women's studies is to bring new perspectives and understanding to bear on the education of all students, men as well as women.

The Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues in the 101st Congress

THE MEMBERS OF CONGRESS WHO BELONG to the bipartisan Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues are involved individually, as well as collectively, in efforts on behalf of women and families. The 21 women who constitute the caucus's executive committee in the 101st Congress hail from 15 states. Fourteen are Democrats, seven are Republicans.

This section, which was prepared in the spring of 1989, begins with a report from Representatives Patricia Schroeder (D-CO) and Olympia Snowe (R-ME), in their capacity as its cochairs, on the caucus's collective activities and concerns, particularly in the first session of the 101st Congress. Following the cochairs' report, 19 of the Congresswomen who belong to the caucus report briefly on their particular activities and perspectives on matters of concern to women. All of the women and men who are members of the caucus as of mid-June 1989 are listed alphabetically at the end of the section.

The Cochairs Report . . .

The Honorable Patricia Schroeder and the Honorable Olympia J. Snowe: As we celebrate the bicentennial of the first Congress, the Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues is looking forward to more victories for women and their families. The 101st Congress promises to be a busy one, and we will be working to enact legislation to increase women's access to opportunities in the workplace and to protect them from violence and abuse in the home.

Many of the issues on the caucus agenda have received early attention from Congress this session. Child care and family and medical leave legislation has already been acted on by committees in both the House and Senate. Other issues of concern to the caucus, such as the problems of domestic violence, displaced homemakers, and infant mortality, are also slated for action this year.

The Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues was founded in 1977 as a bipartisan organization dedicated to improving the status of women. Today, there are well over 100 members. Twenty-one Congresswomen compose the executive committee, which sets the caucus's priorities and goals.

A major focus of the caucus is the Economic Equity Act (EEA), a package of bills that constitute the heart of the caucus's legislative agenda. The caucus has introduced the EEA in each Congress since 1981 and has had notable success with many of its components. The EEA is designed to promote economic equity for women.

Through the EEA and other legislation, the caucus attempts to help women balance their work and family roles. One of the most important bills in this area is the Family and

Medical Leave Act (FMLA), legislation that is long overdue.

The United States is the only industrialized country, except for South Africa, that does not provide its workers with any type of job-guaranteed maternity leave. Most other countries also provide disability insurance for employees who become temporarily unable to work for nonoccupational reasons. American workers are not even guaranteed job protection in the event of a short-term illness or provided leave to care for a newborn child. The caucus is working to enact the FMLA to give American families the flexibility needed to fulfill their responsibilities as employees, spouses, parents, and children of aging parents.

Child care is another critical problem facing American families as more and more women enter the workforce. The need for affordable, quality child care has become a fact of life for millions of families. Today, approximately 10 million preschool children require some form of child care and the supply falls far short of the need; there are only 2.8 million licensed day care slots across the country. The caucus believes the federal government can play a vital role in increasing the supply and improving the quality of child care services for all American families.

In an effort to involve more of our nation's public policy leaders in the child care debate, the caucus issued the Child Care Challenge to members of the 100th Congress. The challenge illuminated the steps taken by the business community to respond to the inadequate supply of quality, affordable child care services. Members of Congress were encouraged to identify the most innovative examples of employer-sponsored child care programs in their congressional districts and states. The response was tremendous. Seventy members of Congress nominated over 160 employers. While much of the responsibility for child care lies with the parents, federal and state governments and the private sector can play an important role in easing the burdens of today's families.

Reducing infant mortality is another item on the caucus agenda in the 101st Congress. The United States is in the embarrassing position of being ranked 19th in the world in the prevention of infant mortality, behind countries ranging from Japan to Sweden to Hong Kong and Singapore. In the United States in 1988, nearly 40,000 infants—a majority of them black infants—died before their first birthday. These are inexcusable statistics, and they are largely preventable. Prenatal care would save many infants' lives, and the caucus is working on legislation to provide women with prenatal care and prenatal education in an effort to decrease the incidence of infant mortality.

Not long ago, during the trial of Joel Steinberg, we learned in graphic detail of the horrors of family violence. We were reminded that domestic violence affects families of every economic, social, and religious segment of our country. The problem of domestic violence is neither new nor insolvable. The caucus has been working on the issue of domestic violence and services for its victims for many years. We must ensure that women and their children are protected from batterers and that they have the support necessary to begin new lives.

Much work lies ahead of us for the 101st Congress. However, we look forward to these challenges and take pride in what the caucus has achieved thus far. The victories we have achieved over the last twelve years demonstrate the effectiveness of the Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues. When members of Congress work together in a bipartisan spirit, American women and families win. The caucus will continue its fight this year, and we look forward to expanding our record of achievement.

The Congresswomen Report . . .

Representative Lindy (Mrs. Hale) Boggs (Democrat; Louisiana, 2nd District): The interests of women receive consideration in all of my congressional work. A particular focus is in the area of economic equality, which broadly encompasses such issues as equality of opportunity and access, preventing spousal impoverishment, the availability of quality child care, parental leave, the problems of displaced homemakers, pay equity, access to equal credit, and employment practices that encourage the advancement of women.

As a member of the executive committee of the Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues, I strongly support the Economic Equity Act and its component parts. A significant achievement for women in 1988 was the enactment into law of the Women's Business Ownership Act that included the major elements of a bill I had coauthored with Chairman LaFalce of the House Small Business Committee to ensure equality of access to business credit for women and minorities. Our bill was a component of the EEA. I am also pleased to report that I have again been successful in securing funding for an important demonstration program establishing child care centers in public housing developments. Additionally, I continue to require reports from public officials on their progress in hiring women *for*, and promoting them *to*, middle- and upper-level positions, as well as progress reports on federal agencies' contracts with women-owned businesses.

I have the privilege of serving on the House Select Committee on Children, Youth and Families and of chairing its

Crisis Intervention Task Force, investigating such areas as child abuse, teen pregnancy, infant mortality, domestic violence, and alcohol and drug abuse and their effect upon families. I have also continued my involvement in representing American elected women through the International Interparliamentary Union. I expect to actively pursue and develop all of these areas and others of concern to women during the 101st Congress.

Representative Barbara Boxer (Democrat; California, 6th District): The Select Committee on Children, Youth and Families, of which I am a member, held a number of hearings of interest to women and families in 1988. As chair of the House Budget Committee's Task Force on Human Resources, I held hearings that focused on the issues of maternal and child health, high school dropouts, infant mortality and children with AIDS.

Economic equity for women continues to be a major priority. I am hopeful that we will finally pass the Family and Medical Leave Act in 1989 and that we will also be able to move on the Economic Equity Act.

I am the author of new legislation to attack the high school dropout problem by having model students create exciting programs for grade school students.

Representative Cardiss Collins (Democrat; Illinois, 7th District): 1989 marks the convening of the 101st Congress. During this critical juncture in the history of our great nation, I will continue to push for legislative initiatives that directly address the health and education needs of, and provide equal opportunity for, women and our nation's families.

I have again introduced legislation that comprehensively addresses the need for affordable, quality child care services. Furthermore, in my capacity as chair of the House Government Activities and Transportation subcommittee, I held follow-up hearings this year to press the General Services Administration (GSA) to provide additional on-site day-care facilities in federal buildings.

Since entering Congress, I have been a strong advocate of reproductive rights. It is necessary that we address a full range of issues related to reproductive health, such as the right to choose or not to choose abortion, access to family planning and all methods of birth control, teen pregnancy, prenatal care, child care, and medical abuses against women.

Because of my concern about a significant increase in the number of women afflicted with uterine cancer, on the first day of the 101st Congress I introduced legislation to require Medicare Part B coverage for routine Pap smear tests. The catastrophic health care insurance bill that was signed into law in 1988 included my amendment requiring Medicare to cover mammography/breast cancer screenings for women over age 65.

Representative Nancy Johnson (Republican; Connecticut, 6th District): In my view, the most important mission of the Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues is to strive for the empowerment of American women. Today's working women do not simply need more day care for their children, they also need the freedom to structure their lives to be with their children. That's empowerment.

Today's parents need to know that they can take time off, not only in family emergencies, but also for the school play, the parent-teacher conference, or the chicken pox—the important events in a child's life.

Empowerment is the bottom line in women's issues. So many of the issues that American women grapple with involve a tradeoff between a desperately needed job and the welfare of one's family. My goal in the 101st Congress is to integrate these tradeoffs so that American women can meet both their responsibilities at work and their obligations at home. We must empower women to make the best decisions for themselves and the future of their families.

Representative Marcy Kaptur (Democrat; Ohio, 9th District): I am pleased to see the ambitious agenda for the 101st Congress set out by the Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues. Child care continues to attract a great deal of attention, and the debate on how to provide it and how to finance it promises to be lively. In the last Congress, I was able to include in the omnibus housing bill a provision authorizing funds to help nonprofit organizations establish child care programs in public housing. I believe we must continue to widen access to child care, and I am sponsoring a measure to encourage day care centers in private homes. This bill, a companion to one sponsored by Senator David Durenberger (R-MN), would permit the federally chartered corporations that buy mortgages in the secondary market to purchase mortgages for homes with family day care centers. Such purchases are not allowed under present law; as a result, local lenders that expect to sell their mortgages to Fannie Mae, Ginnie Mae, or Freddie Mac are reluctant to approve mortgage-loans for homes where family day care centers will be operated.

I am also interested in improving working conditions and enhancing career potential for long-term care nursing aides, 90 percent of whom are women. Virtually all of them work for very low wages and often have few or no fringe benefits. To bring attention to the very important work that they perform, I plan to introduce a resolution highlighting basic facts about chronic care workers and calling for better pay and employment conditions. I will also introduce a bill to address the shortage of chronic care workers by encouraging the involvement of volunteers in providing some chronic care services under the Older Americans Act's Demonstration Grants Program.

Senator Nancy Landon Kassebaum (Republican; Kansas): During the 101st Congress, my primary focus on issues of concern to women and families will be in the area of education. In my new position as ranking Republican member of the Senate Education Subcommittee, I will be a strong voice for efforts to assure that our educational system meets the standards we need and expect.

Assuring that our children receive a good education ranks among the most prominent concerns of American families. I think it is particularly important that we focus on the early years and that we recognize that schools alone are far from the only factors with an impact on learning. In this connection, maintaining a strong Head Start program is a priority.

In addition, I intend to continue my efforts on behalf of our international family planning programs. Unfortunately, policies that weaken our efforts in this area remain in effect.

Representative Barbara B. Kennelly (Democrat; Connecticut, 1st District): Although women have been a large part of the American work force for many years, only now are the inequities they face—and the work we still have to do—becoming clear, partly through the work of the Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues and the legislative initiatives in which I have been involved.

In the last Congress, we passed the welfare reform bill, now signed into law. As the only woman then on the Ways and Means Committee and as a member of its Human Resources Subcommittee, I worked hard on this bill through very difficult times. The bill promotes jobs, education, and child care in order to help free women from the welfare dependency cycle that saps them of their confidence and dignity.

In 1989, the House and Senate passed the long-anticipated increase in the minimum wage. Because 60 percent of minimum-wage workers are women, many of whom are their families' sole support, I have long believed that the adequacy of the minimum wage is the single most important economic issue facing women today.

I hope this year to succeed in expanding the Maternal and Child Health Services Block Grant, which provides prenatal care for low-income women. The adequacy of funding for prenatal care is critically important to millions of women who otherwise will not or cannot get medical attention during their pregnancies. We must turn around this country's high infant mortality rate, now higher than the rates in 21 other industrialized countries.

This year, I am also serving on the Speaker's Special Task Force on Children's Issues, which will identify and work on legislation concerning child care, foster care, and parental leave. I am a cosponsor of the Act for Better Child Care and hope to see more day care services for families as well as minimal health and safety standards for the children in day care.

Representative Nita M. Lowey (Democrat; New York, 20th District): As one of only two women elected to Congress in November 1988, I am enthusiastic about my new role and delighted to participate in the Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues.

The 101st Congress will face a number of exceedingly important issues related to the future of women and families and to the quality of life in our nation. I have already been active, as a member of the House Committee on Education and Labor, in pushing for enactment of parental leave and minimum-wage legislation. A job-protected period of leave following childbirth or during the illness of a family member is critical in a society where busy careers and family responsibilities compete for limited time. Similarly, a raise in the minimum wage is long overdue and will help millions of American families that are struggling to make ends meet. The Education and Labor Committee will also act this year on legislation to help increase the supply of quality, affordable child care. This is crucial to the demands of our society and to the consciences of millions of American parents.

An equally pressing goal is the preservation of the *Roe v. Wade* decision, which affirms the constitutional right of women to choose a safe, legal abortion. The Supreme Court will rule this year on a case that could weaken or overturn this landmark decision. I joined hundreds of thousands of Americans on the Mall in Washington, D.C. in demonstrating our support for this fundamental right. As a member of Congress, I believe we must be vigilant in protecting this precious right.

Representative Jan Meyers (Republican; Kansas, 3rd District): The U.S. Department of Labor not only documents the extent to which women have increasingly joined the ranks of the American work force but projects that this trend will continue into the 21st century. In fact, the majority—over two-thirds—of new entrants to the labor force between now and the year 2000 will be women and minorities.

The changing demographics of the labor market require Congress to keep a finger on the pulse of the concerns of working families. One of the more pressing of these is child care. There is not any one solution to our nation's child care problems; child care needs vary among families, communities, and states. Congressional action on child care should adopt a multi-dimensional approach. I support legislation that allows each state to determine its child care needs. Block grant funds allow states to choose from a list of priorities to provide affordable and quality child care to families.

Latchkey children are in dire need of after-school child care. States should be given funds to encourage schools to establish after-school programs for these children.

The business community also has a role in meeting child care needs. Many large employers already provide on-site or near-site care. To encourage small and medium-size businesses to get involved in child care, tax credits for start-up costs should be authorized.

I will be working throughout the 101st Congress with the Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues on child care legislation and other issues of primary concern to women and families.

Representative Constance A. Morella (Republican; Maryland, 8th District): As a member of the Committee on Post Office and Civil Service and the Select Committee on Aging, I have devoted substantial efforts to issues affecting federally employed women and older women. My legislative priorities emphasize family and medical leave, pay equity, the need for protection against the costs of long-term and home healthcare services, and the expansion of quality health care.

I am an original cosponsor of the Act for Better Child Care Services and the Economic Equity Act. These comprehensive packages address the need for affordable and accessible high-quality child care and issues of equity for women in such areas as pay, business, and pension benefits.

In the international arena, I have worked with women "refuseniks," and divided spouses and families, and I traveled to the Soviet Union to meet with government officials in this effort.

Representative Mary Rose Oakar (Democrat; Ohio, 20th District): The 101st Congress holds real promise for addressing many issues that are of the utmost importance to women.

Along with parental leave and child care, pay equity continues to move forward. A study of the federal government's pay and classification scales is presently being pursued through an investigative arm of Congress, and I have introduced new legislation regarding pay equity in the 101st Congress. The goal of the Pay Equity Technical Assistance Act is to make resources and assistance available to those employers who have decided to address wage inequities in their workplaces.

In addition, we have a real opportunity to make a difference in health care. I am currently serving on the Bipartisan Commission on Comprehensive Health Care. This commission has two primary goals: first, to examine the shortcomings in current health care policies that limit individuals' access to comprehensive health care, and second, to make specific recommendations about improving long-term care services and comprehensive health care services for all Americans. I am strongly committed to ensuring that the commission issues just and sound recommendations and equally committed to securing substantial improvements in the U.S. health care system based on those recommendations.

Representative Elizabeth J. Patterson (Democrat; South Carolina, 4th District): As a member of the Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues, I have become increasingly concerned about matters that affect children, women, and families. During my first term in Congress, I introduced a bill to establish child care centers at veterans' medical centers for the employees' children. It is my hope that during the 101st Congress, I can continue my efforts on behalf of our children by introducing legislation to establish a "Children's Trust Fund" for the purpose of providing grants and low-interest loans to innovative programs that provide social services for children, including child nutrition, child health care, foster care, and services for neglected or abused children. The trust fund would be funded by contributions donated by taxpayers from their federal income tax refund. It is my hope that this legislation will help expand and improve services for our children.

Representative Nancy Pelosi (Democrat; California, 5th District): As a member of the House Banking, Finance and Urban Affairs Committee, I have had the opportunity to work on affordable housing for families. Our country should provide the basic necessities, food, clothing, and shelter for everyone, and it is not doing this. Of particular importance to me is the plight of homeless children. They are forgotten, frightened youngsters who have lost not only their homes, but also their self-esteem and their sense of belonging to a community. They are a generation growing up uneducated, neglected, and endangered by a society that has turned its back on this most poignant aspect of homelessness. As a nation we need to outline our priorities. It is imperative that we invest in our future—in our children, who will grow up to be the leaders of our country.

Representative Patricia Saiki (Republican; Hawaii, 1st District): Women increasingly are entering untraditional fields of professional activity and their interests and requirements are reflected in many major legislative areas.

As a member of the Banking Committee, I have been involved in finding solutions to the crisis within the nation's savings and loan industry. Restoring stability to America's financial institutions will strengthen the general economy, a benefit to everyone.

I am particularly interested in seeing our nation's young people become the beneficiaries of an improved educational system. As a former teacher, I understand the value of quality education. Our nation's effort to improve educational opportunities must be refined to allow our young people to remain competitive in our increasingly sophisticated technological environment.

Health issues confront women directly. Not only are women the majority of our nation's elderly, but an overwhelming number of health care workers are women. Therefore, I consider long-term health care legislation a high priority before this Congress.

Additional priorities for me in this Congress are child care and family and medical leave policies. I am pleased that these measures have already received committee attention. Considering the new demands placed upon families, it is obvious that the availability of quality child care and personal leave must be addressed.

Most of these issues are among those promoted by the Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues. The caucus is a vital force behind initiatives aimed to assist women and a focal point for the social and economic concerns of women. I am pleased to be an executive committee member of the caucus and I applaud its efforts.

Representative Claudine Schneider (Republican; Rhode Island, 2nd District): I look forward to the challenges we face in the 101st Congress and I am confident that progress will be made on a number of fronts that are critical to moving us toward greater equality.

Full access to quality education for women and girls has never been more important to our nation. If we are to compete successfully in the global economy, we must enter the 21st century with adequate numbers of well-educated workers. As women become an ever increasing percentage of the workforce, providing adequate opportunities for women goes beyond a concern for equity; all entrants into the labor market must receive training that is second to none.

One of my major concerns in this area is that women and girls not be denied equal access to quality vocational education that will prepare them for good jobs with good pay. The choice to enroll in nontraditional courses and exposure to opportunities in nontraditional occupations are essential components for reducing women's poverty and dependence. Early in the 101st Congress I introduced legislation to ensure that federally funded vocational education programs continue to provide women and girls with these opportunities. I am happy to report that the vocational education reauthorization bill recently approved by the House responds to these concerns by preserving funds explicitly for the purpose of ensuring sex equity in vocational education and also specifying that displaced homemakers will continue to be eligible for vocational education programs.

We must also do much more to encourage the participation of women and girls in math, science, and engineering. As a ranking member of the Science, Space and Technology Committee, I am concerned about the future of the scientific workforce and the need to ensure that more women enter and remain in the science education pipeline. Science education has often been described as a leaky pipeline—this is especially true where women are concerned. At each stage, women leak out in greater numbers than do men. At the various end-points of the pipeline—baccalaureate degrees, Masters' degrees, Ph.D. programs, and science faculty positions—the percentage of women declines.

To ensure a sufficient number of science, math, and engineering professionals, we must increase the number of women entering these specialties and prevent their falling by the wayside. I have introduced legislation in the 101st Congress to expand the opportunities for women by increasing the availability of innovative programs to bring women into the scientific professions and providing scholarships to encourage women to continue their education in scientific specialties.

Representative Patricia Schroeder (Democrat; Colorado, 1st District): Developing fair, cost-effective policies that enhance the lives of American families is a high priority on my agenda for the 101st Congress. Three of my bills go to the heart of family policy. First, I have introduced the Family and Medical Leave Act that establishes a right for working parents to a job-guaranteed leave when they have or adopt a baby, when their children or parents are seriously ill, or when they experience a serious medical condition. The Family and Medical Leave Act coalition, which includes groups from the labor, women's, religious, health, family, and disability community, has done a fantastic job of fine-tuning this legislation so that it represents a fair, carefully crafted, response to the increasing and competing demands of work and family.

Second, I have introduced the Part-Time and Temporary Workers Protection Act that amends the Employee Retirement Income Security Act of 1974 (ERISA) to include part-time employees in pension and health insurance plans on a "pro-rata" basis. In many two-earner families, one spouse—usually the woman—works part-time, sometimes in order to accommodate child care needs, but in many cases because only part-time work is available. My bill recognizes that these part-time workers and their families have a right to benefits.

Third, I have introduced the Family Building Act, which requires that all federal employee health insurance plans cover family building activities, including medical procedures necessary to overcome infertility and necessary expenses related to adoption. While the bill will only apply to federal workers, it will serve as a model for all employees.

Representative Louise M. Slaughter (Democrat; New York, 30th District): My commitment to the issues affecting women remains strong as I begin my second term in the House of Representatives. I intend to actively represent my upstate New York district in debating and shaping women's and family legislation in the 101st Congress.

As the numbers of children living at or near the poverty level reach frightening levels and families struggle to meet more competing responsibilities than ever before, Congress and the president must respond with workable solutions for families. Though our nation must make difficult spending decisions in the face of a sizable federal budget deficit, families must remain a priority. It is essential that we commit to effective programs for our children in the form of family and medical leave, child care, and preventive programs such as health care and nutritional assistance.

I am currently working on child care legislation that involves a cooperative effort between business and the federal government. We all have a stake in ensuring the availability of quality, affordable child care: parents, business, and society as a whole. In addition, I am an original cosponsor of the Family and Medical Leave Act. I will work with my colleagues to pass these and other family legislative initiatives this Congress.

Representative Olympia Snowe (Republican; Maine, 2d District): The care provided to America's children has been of particular importance to me for many years; I first held child care hearings back in 1983. Evidence abounds that many working parents have great difficulty in making affordable, suitable arrangements for the care of their children. I am deeply concerned, for example, that an estimated 1.5 million preschool children are left unattended for at least part of the time their parents are working.

Because I believe we have a responsibility to help make sure that working parents have access to good child care, I have been a principal cosponsor of the Act for Better Child Care Services in both the 100th and 101st Congresses. The intent of this legislation is to assist families with child care expenses and improve the availability of quality child care services. As part of a dual strategy to address the crisis in child care, I have also reintroduced my Dependent Care Tax Credit legislation, H.R. 994, to expand the current tax credit for child care expenses and make it refundable to families whose incomes are below current tax liability levels. This legislation also allows credit for respite care expenses for elderly dependents.

As a member of the House Select Committee on Aging, I have been a leader in caregiver issues, introducing the Alzheimer's Disease Tax Credit Act which would provide a tax credit for family caregivers of victims of Alzheimer's. This is the fourth year that I have introduced the National Osteoporosis Prevention Week legislation, bringing attention to the growing problem of osteoporosis in older women. The Intergenerational Library Literacy Act, which I have introduced, is designed to encourage the use of older adult volunteers to provide library literacy programs to latchkey children.

Representative Jolene Unsoeld (Democrat; Washington, 3rd District): My top priority in Congress is to help strengthen America's families, which are foundations of healthy communities and a vibrant society.

To promote strong families we must ensure that workers are able to find good jobs with decent wages. Parents must be able to buy a home. They should have access to safe and affordable child care. Our neighborhoods must be free of drugs and toxic waste.

America must make a greater investment in its children. Our children are the parents of tomorrow and the building blocks of our economic future. If this country is to remain competitive and adapt to a changing world economy, we must ensure that our education system is second to none. Teachers should be given the salaries, prestige, and working conditions they so richly deserve. Students must be allowed to attend the college of their choice.

Ensuring that we make these commitments today is not merely an option, it is an obligation.

Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues

Gary Ackerman (D-NY)
Michael Andrews (D-TX)
Les Aspin (D-WI)
Chester Atkins (D-MA)
Les AuCoin (D-OR)
Jim Bates (D-CA)
Anthony Beilenson (D-CA)
Howard Berman (D-CA)
*Lindy (Mrs. Hale) Boggs (D-LA)
Robert Borski (D-PA)
*Barbara Boxer (D-CA)
George Brown, Jr. (D-CA)
Ben Nighthorse Campbell (D-CO)
Tom Campbell (R-CA)
Benjamin Cardin (D-MD)
Thomas Carper (D-DE)
William Clay (D-MO)
Ronald Coleman (D-TX)
*Cardiss Collins (D-IL)
Silvio Conte (R-MA)

John Conyers (D-MI)
George Crockett (D-MI)
Peter DeFazio (D-OR)
Ronald Dellums (D-CA)
Julian Dixon (D-CA)
Thomas Downey (D-NY)
Richard Durbin (D-IL)
Bernard Dwyer (D-NJ)
Don Edwards (D-CA)
Ben Erdreich (D-AL)
Lane Evans (D-IL)
Dante Fascell (D-FL)
Vic Fazio (D-CA)
Hamilton Fish, Jr. (R-NY)
Thomas Foglietta (D-PA)
Thomas Foley (D-WA)
Barney Frank (D-MA)
Martin Frost (D-TX)
Jaime Fuster (Del-D-PR)
Robert Garcia (D-NY)
Sam Gejdenson (D-CT)
Richard Gephardt (D-MO)
Benjamin Gilman (R-NY)
William Gray, III (D-PA)
Bill Green (R-NY)
Frank Guarini (D-NJ)
Steve Gunderson (R-WI)
Augustus Hawkins (D-CA)
Charles Hayes (D-IL)
Steny Hoyer (D-MD)
*Nancy Johnson (R-CT)
*Marcy Kaptur (D-OH)
*Nancy Kassebaum (Sen-R-KS)
Joseph Kennedy (D-MA)
*Barbara Kennelly (D-CT)
John LaFalce (D-NY)
Tom Lantos (D-CA)
Jim Leach (R-IA)
William Lehman (D-FL)
Mickey Leland (D-TX)
Sander Levin (D-MI)
Mel Levine (D-CA)
John Lewis (D-GA)
*Jill Long (D-IN)
*Nita Lowey (D-NY)
Frank McCloskey (D-IN)
Jim McDermott (D-WA)
Matthew McHugh (D-NY)
Thomas McMillen (D-MD)
Edward Markey (D-MA)
Robert Matsui (D-CA)
*Jan Meyers (R-KS)
Kweisi Mfume (D-MD)
*Barbara Mikulski (Sen-D-MD)
George Miller (D-CA)
John Miller (R-WA)
Joe Moakley (D-MA)
Jim Moody (D-WI)
*Constance Morella (R-MD)
Bruce Morrison (D-CT)
Sid Morrison (R-WA)
Robert Mrazek (D-NY)
Stephen Neal (D-NC)
*Mary Rose Oakar (D-OH)
Wayne Owens (D-UT)
*Elizabeth Patterson (D-SC)
*Nancy Pelosi (D-CA)
Carl Pursell (R-MI)
Charles Rangel (D-NY)
Robert Roe (D-NJ)
Martin Sabo (D-MN)
*Patricia Saiki (R-HI)
Thomas Sawyer (D-OH)
James Scheuer (D-NY)

*Claudine Schneider (R-RI)
*Patricia Schroeder (D-CO)
Christopher Shays (R-CT)
Gerry Sikorski (D-MN)
Jim Slattery (D-KS)
*Louise Slaughter (D-NY)
Lawrence Smith (D-FL)
*Olympia Snowe (R-ME)
Harley Staggers (D-WV)
Gerry Studds (D-MA)
Al Swift (D-WA)
Mike Synar (D-OK)
Edolphus Towns (D-NY)
Morris Udall (D-AZ)
*Jolene Unsoeld (D-WA)
Bruce Vento (D-MN)
Ted Weiss (D-NY)
Alan Wheat (D-MO)
Pat Williams (D-MT)
Howard Wolpe (D-MI)
Ron Wyden (D-OR)
Sidney Yates (D-IL)

*Executive committee member.

Appendices

American Women Today: A Statistical Portrait

Highlights of Tables and Figures

Figure 1. *Population of the United States by Race and Sex, 1988 and Projected 2000*

As of 1988, females were 51.3 percent of the total U.S. population, a figure that should change little between now and the turn of the century. What is projected to change somewhat is the composition of the population, both male and female. Nonwhites will increase their share of the population slightly—from 15.7 percent to 17.4 percent. Nonwhite women, currently 8.2 percent of the female population, will comprise nine percent of the female population in the year 2000.

Table 1. *Age Distribution of the Total Female Population and the Hispanic Female Population by Type of Origin, 1987*

Hispanics, who may be of any race, are one of the fastest growing subgroups in the population. They are also among the youngest, as is evident in the age distribution and median age figures for females in Table 1. Thirty-eight percent of the Hispanic female population, but only 28 percent of the total female population, are under the age of 20. Fewer than six percent of Hispanic females, but over 13 percent of all females, are at least 65 years old. When measured by the median age, Hispanic females are, on average, over seven years younger than the total female population.

Among Hispanics, marked differences in age by type of origin are readily apparent. Mexican females, the youngest of the five Hispanic groups highlighted in Table 1, are over twice as likely as Cuban females to be under the age of 20 but about one-third as likely to be 65 or older. The median age of Mexican women in the United States is nearly 16 years lower than that of their Cuban counterparts.

Table 2. *Death Rates for All Causes by Age, Race, and Sex, 1984-87*

Death rates vary widely by sex, race, and, of course, age. Among black females in 1987, for example, there were nearly 580 deaths for every 100,000 black females. In contrast, the 1987 death rate of 387 for white females was one-third lower than that of black females. Regardless of race or age, males—especially black males—have substantially higher death rates than do females.

Table 3. *Percent of Total Population with a Functional Limitation by Sex, Age, Race, and Hispanic Origin, 1984*

Many Americans, particularly at the upper ages, report some functional limitation, defined as difficulty seeing, hearing, speaking, walking a certain distance, lifting or carrying, getting in and out of bed, or getting around inside or outside of their homes. Age is clearly associated with the presence of limitations, but so are sex and race. Regardless of age (persons 15 to 64 or 65 and over), reports of functional limitations are more common among women, and, especially in the case of women, more common among minorities.

Table 4. *Persons Age 65 and Over with a Functional Limitation by Sex, Family Relationship, and Severity of Limitation, 1984*

Although women in their later years are more likely than older men to experience functional limitations, they are far less likely than men to be living with a spouse or other relative who might provide caregiving assistance. Of the older men with severe functional limitations, for example, nearly seven out of 10 are married and living with a spouse. Fewer than three out of 10 older women with severe limitations reside with a husband. Almost half of these women live alone or, in some cases, with nonrelatives.

Table 5. *Marital Status of Persons Age 15 and Over by Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin, March 1988*

Over half of all persons age 15 and over are married and living with a spouse—54 percent of women and 58 percent of men. Men are more likely than women never to have married, while women are more likely than men to be divorced or widowed.

Figure 2. *Never-Married Women as a Percent of All Women Age 14 and Over, Selected Years, 1890-1988*

The proportion of never-married women 14 and older dropped sharply over the first half of this century. As of 1960, only one out of every five women had not been married at least once, down from one in three in 1900. After 1960—as the median age at first marriage began to rise—the proportion of never-married women rose, although it still remains well below the figures for the early to mid-1900s.

Table 6. *Never-Married Women by Age, Selected Years, 1940-88*

Most women eventually marry, a fact that is readily apparent in Table 6. Today's young woman (under 25), however, is far more likely than her 1960 counterpart to be single (never married), which is not surprising given a rise in age at first marriage. As of 1988, for example, women between the ages of 20 and 24 were over twice as likely as women of the same age in 1960 never to have married (61 percent vs. 28 percent). And while the majority of women in their mid- to late twenties have married at least once, as of 1988, they were nearly three times as likely not to have done so as 25- to 29-year-olds a generation ago (29.5 percent vs. 10.5 percent).

Figure 3. *Birth Rates for Women Age 20-24 by Race, Selected Years, 1950-85*

After rising sharply during the "baby boom" years, the birth rate among young women began to plummet, starting about 1960. The 1960 birth rate for women between the ages of 20 and 24 was 258, i.e., there were 258 live births for every 1,000 women in that age group. By 1985, the birth rate for 20- to 24-year-old women stood at 109, a decline of 58 percent. Young black and white women both have birth rates that are less than half of what they were 25 years ago.

Table 7. *Women Who Have Had a Child in the Preceding Year by Age and Marital Status, June 1987*

The younger the woman giving birth, the greater the probability that she will be single: in 1987, over two-thirds (68 percent) of all 18- to 24-year-old women who had a child in the preceding year had never married. In contrast, over two-thirds (70 percent) of 30- to 44-year-old women who had given birth during the previous year were married and living with their husbands.

Table 8. *Unmarried-Couple Households by Presence of Children Under 15 Years of Age, Selected Years, 1960-88*

Between 1960 and 1988, the number of unmarried-couple households increased nearly sixfold—from less than a half million to 2.6 million. Over this period, the number of such households with children also increased, although not as rapidly as the total number of unmarried-couple households. As a result, the proportion of unmarried-couple households with children is lower today than it was in 1960—31 percent vs. 45 percent.

Table 9. *Legal Abortion Ratios by Age, Race, and Marital Status of Woman, Selected Years, 1973-83*

The number of abortions per 100 live births—the abortion ratio—rose from just under 20 in 1973 to almost 35 in 1983, an increase of over 75 percent. Abortion ratios vary widely by age, race, and marital status. In 1983, for example, there were only nine abortions for every 100 live births to married women; the comparable figure for unmarried women was 135 per 100 live births.

Table 10. *Household Type, Selected Years, 1940-88*

Dramatic changes in the distribution of households by type, i.e., households consisting of families, persons living alone, or persons living with nonrelatives, have occurred over the past half century. Married-couple families make up a substantially smaller proportion of all households today than they did in 1940 (57 percent in 1988 vs. 76 percent in 1940), while the proportion of nonfamily households has risen sharply. As of 1988, 16 percent of all U.S. households were nonfamily households "headed" by women, nearly triple the percentage in 1940.

Table 11. *Family Type by Race and Hispanic Origin, Selected Years, 1970-86*

As of 1986, there were over 65 million *families* in the United States, that is, households in which at least two or more members were related to one another. The large majority (nearly 80 percent) of families are married-couple families. Such families are, however, less common among Hispanics (70 percent of all families) and blacks (51 percent) than among whites (83 percent).

The proportion of female-headed families among Hispanics (23 percent) and blacks (43 percent) was almost two to more than three times as high as it was among whites (13 percent). Regardless of race or Hispanic origin, both the number and the proportion of families headed by women have increased sharply in recent years. The proportion of families headed by men without spouses has also increased, but these families are still relatively few in number.

Table 12. *Families by Labor Force Status of Husband and Wife and by Presence of Children, 1980, 1985, and 1987*

The so-called "traditional family," consisting of a married couple with a nonworking wife and children, represents an ever smaller proportion of U.S. families. As of 1987, only 13 percent of all families fell into this category, down from just over 14 percent two years earlier and 18 percent in 1980. Today's most common family type is the one in which both the husband and wife are in the labor force; two out of every five families are dual-earner families.

Table 13. *Living Arrangements of Children Under Age 18 by Race and Hispanic Origin, 1980 and 1988*

Changes in family composition suggest changes in where children are living, and, indeed, the percentage of children living with two parents has been declining. Nonetheless, most white and Hispanic children still reside with both parents; a majority of black children, in contrast, live with a single parent, generally the mother. As of 1988, 16 percent of white children, 27 percent of Hispanic children, and 51 percent of black children were living in one-parent families headed by mothers.

Figure 4. *Families with Female Householders, by Housing Ownership or Rentership and by Race and Hispanic Origin of Householder, March 1987*

As noted in Chapter 2, homeownership is the great American dream and a majority of householders—mainly married-couples—do own their own homes. Homeownership is far less common among families headed by women, who are about as likely to rent (45 percent in 1987) as they are to own (46 percent). Black and Hispanic householders are considerably less likely than white women to be homeowners. Nearly one in 10 families with a female householder resides in publicly subsidized housing.

Table 14. *Civilian Labor Force Participation Rates for Persons Age 16 and Over by Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin, Selected Years, 1950-88*

One of the most pronounced developments of the past 40 years has been the influx of women into the workforce, which continues today. As of 1988, 56.6 percent of all women age 16 or older were in the labor force, a rise of six-tenths of a percentage point over the figure for the previous year and an increase of nearly 23 percentage points since 1950. Among women, blacks had the highest and Hispanics the lowest participation rates, but the participation gap between the two groups in 1988 was less than five percentage points.

Figure 5. *Civilian Labor Force Participation Rates for Women by Age, 1950, 1970, and 1988*

That labor force attachment has increased among women of almost all ages is most graphically portrayed in Figure 5. For example, the labor force participation rate of women between the ages of 25 and 34 more than doubled between 1950 and 1988, rising from 34 percent to just under 73 percent. The rate nearly doubled among the next oldest group, women between the ages of 35 and 54. In fact, it has only been among women 65 and above that participation rates have not increased since 1950.

Table 15. *Labor Force Status by Years of School Completed and Sex, March 1978 and March 1988*

The labor force is becoming better educated, if completed years of schooling among its members is any guide. Over the 1978-88 decade, the proportion of labor force participants who were college graduates increased, while the proportion with less than a high school diploma decreased. This has been the case among both sexes, and although female labor force participants are still less likely than males to be college graduates, they are more likely than male participants to have finished high school.

Labor force participation varies by educational attainment, with rates substantially higher among the better educated of both sexes. As of 1988, 81 percent of all female college graduates, but only 45 percent of those with fewer than four years of high school, were in the labor force.

Table 16. *Full- and Part-Time Work Experience of Working Women by Age, 1966 and 1986*

If women work outside the home, they tend to work full time, and the percentage of women doing so—75 percent—has undergone surprisingly little change since 1966. There has, however, been a growing tendency, most noticeably among 25- to 35-year-old full-time workers, toward year-round employment.

Table 17. *Labor Force and Employment Experience of Women with Young Children, 1960, 1986, and 1988*

Over the past three decades, more and more women with very young children have entered the labor force, and today, a majority of women with children under the age of three are working or looking for work. However, full-time work, though it too has been increasing, is not yet the norm among women with small children. Only about one-third of women with children either under the age of three or under the age of six are employed full time.

Figure 6. *Percent of Children with Mother in the Labor Force by Age of Children, Selected Years, 1970-88*

Today, the majority of children under the age of 18—six out of 10—have mothers in the labor force.

Table 18. *Unemployment Rates for Persons Age 16 and Over by Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin, Selected Years, 1950-88*

Regardless of gender, race, or Hispanic origin, unemployment rates dropped between 1987 and 1988, and as of 1988, fewer than six percent (5.6) of all women were officially "unemployed." The unemployment rates for black and Hispanic women (11.7 percent and 8.3 percent, respectively), though lower than the previous year, remained well above the rate for white women (4.7 percent).

Figure 7. *Reasons for Not Being in the Labor Force by Sex, 1975 and 1988*

Despite rising rates of labor force participation, 38 million women and 19 million men were not in the labor force in 1988. Men who are not in the labor force are generally retired (54 percent in 1988) or in school (21 percent), while women are typically keeping house (63 percent). Over time, the reasons for not being in the labor force have changed markedly, especially among women, who are substantially less likely to say that keeping house is their reason for being out of the labor force. Relatively few men admit that keeping house explains why they are not in the labor force, although the percentage who give this as the reason rose from 1.5 in 1975 to 2.3 in 1988.

Figure 8. *Occupational Distribution of Employed Women and Men, 1972 and 1988*

Employed women are far more likely than men to be administrative support workers (a category that includes clerical workers) and service workers; in fact, almost half (46 percent) of all women can be found in jobs in these broad occupational groupings. Nonetheless, the occupational distribution of female workers has been changing. Just under 11 percent of all women are now managerial workers, more than double the percentage for 1972. Women are also slightly more likely to be professionals and less likely to be operatives than they were in 1972.

Table 19. *Women as a Percent of All Workers in Selected Occupations, 1975 and 1988*

Despite persistent and sometimes increasing gender segregation in some occupations (e.g., social work), women are making inroads in many formerly male preserves. In 1988, women accounted for almost 20 percent of all lawyers and judges, nearly triple the proportion of 1975. They were 13 percent of all police officers, up from less than three percent in 1975; 15 percent of all architects, up from less than five percent in 1975; and over half of all editors and reporters, compared to 45 percent in 1975. And although women remain a distinct minority in many occupations, a slight increase in the proportion of pilots, firefighters, and certain repair workers who are female is also evident.

Figure 9. *Industry Distribution of Employed Women and Men, 1978 and 1988*

Women are far more concentrated than men in certain industries—particularly in what is known as "other service industries," which employ 42 percent of all working women. Another 19 percent are in retail trade. The overall industry distribution of employed women has changed little over the past 10 years.

Table 20. *Women as a Percent of Employed Scientists (by Specialty) and Engineers, 1976 and 1986*

Although women remain a distinct minority of scientists and engineers, both the number and proportion of females in these occupations have increased in recent years. In fact, their number more than tripled to 700,000 between 1976 and 1986, and, as of 1986, women were 15 percent of the total population of scientists and engineers. Women are more likely to be found among social scientists and psychologists than they are among physical or environmental scientists, and they are still poorly represented among engineers. Nonetheless, their representation in each of the fields shown in Table 20 improved between 1976 and 1986.

Table 21. *Employment Sector of Female Scientists by Racial/Ethnic Group and of All Male Scientists, 1986*

A majority of scientists, regardless of gender, work in business and industry. However, female scientists—especially Native Americans—are more likely than male scientists to be employed by educational institutions or "other" agencies or organizations, which includes state and local governments, nonprofit organizations, and hospitals or clinics.

Table 22. *Women in Elective Office, Selected Offices, 1975-89*

The number of women getting elected to public office continues to increase, at least at the state level, where there were more than 1,200 elected women in 1989. These women were 17 percent of all state legislators, more than double the figure for 1975. At the national level, progress has been less pronounced, although 29 were serving in the 101st Congress in 1989, an increase of four over the 100th Congress.

Table 23. *Historical Data on the Number of Women Directors on Fortune Boards, Selected Years, 1969-88*

The number of women on Fortune boards of directors has risen more than ninefold over the past 20 years. Still, as of 1988, there were only 426 women serving on corporate boards, and more than half of the boards of Fortune companies still lacked a single female member.

Table 24. *Women in the Armed Services, 1973 and 1987*

Women are a growing presence in the Armed Services, where they now number nearly 221,000 or 10 percent of the total. Although progress has occurred in each branch of the military, it has been most noticeable in the Air Force, over 12 percent of whose members are now women. The Marine Corps is only five percent female.

Table 25. *Women and Men Applying to and Being Accepted by Medical Schools, 1973/74-1988/89*

During the 1988-89 academic year, over 10,000 women applied to medical school, up from just over 7,000 in 1973-74. During this same period, the number of male medical school applicants dropped from somewhat more than 33,000 to 16,500. In 1988, women were 38 percent of the applicants to medical school and 37 percent of the students accepted. Fifteen years earlier, women were only 18 percent of the applicants and 20 percent of the accepted students.

Figure 10. *Median Annual Earnings of Year-Round, Full-Time Workers by Sex, Selected Years, 1960-87*

Between 1960 and 1987, the median annual earnings of women who work year round, full time increased by 35 percent, while those of men increased by only 26 percent. Over this nearly 30-year period, the female-to-male wage ratio, when based on the annual earnings of fully employed workers, rose from 61 to 65 percent.

Figure 11. *Median Usual Weekly Earnings of Full-Time Wage and Salary Workers by Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin, 1988*

The median weekly earnings of white men continue to exceed, by a wide margin, the earnings of minority men and all women. In 1988, white women who worked full time had median weekly earnings of $318, approximately 68 percent of the $465 median earnings of full-time working white men. Black and Hispanic women fared even worse, earning, respectively, only 62 percent and 56 percent of what white men earned. (A comparison of 1988 median weekly earnings of all full-time working women to the earnings of all full-time working men yields a wage ratio of 70 percent, somewhat higher than the ratio computed from annual earnings.)

Table 26. *Median Weekly Earnings of Full-Time Wage and Salary Workers by Sex and Age, 1988*

For the most part, the earnings of females and males continue to be most comparable at the younger ages when workers are just starting out: in 1988, full-time working women between the ages of 16 and 24 earned 90 percent of what men in that age group earned (an improvement of one percentage point over the previous year). Among workers 25 to 34, however, the female-male wage ratio was only 78 percent (although again an improvement over the figure for 1987), and by middle age it had dropped to 62 percent. In the 65-plus population, however, the ratio improved somewhat.

Table 27. *Average (Mean) Earnings of Year-Round, Full-Time Workers by Sex and Educational Attainment, 1987*

At every education level, women who work year round, full time continue to earn less than their male counterparts. Female college graduates who worked full time for all of 1987 actually earned less, on average, than fully employed men with no more than a high school diploma—$25,544 vs. $27,293.

Table 28. *State Government Pay Equity Activity, 1984, 1986, and 1988*

Implementation of pay equity strategies is one way of improving women's wages relative to those of men. The National Committee on Pay Equity, which has been tracking state pay equity activity, finds that as of 1988, 43 states—twice the number of four years ago—had begun preliminary research into the issue of pay equity, and 23—also double the number of four years ago—had begun to examine their job classification and compensation systems. The number of states that had taken no action was down to seven in 1988. Few states, however, have actually *implemented* broad-based pay equity plans.

Figure 12. *Median Income of Persons Age 15 and Over by Age, Sex, and Year-Round, Full-Time Employment Status, 1987*

Not unexpectedly, year-round, full-time workers continue to report incomes well above the incomes of all persons of the same age and sex. This is true for both women and men; however, the median income of year-round, full-time women workers was only $17,504 in 1987; their male counterparts had a median income of $26,722.

Table 29. *Median Annual Income of Families by Family Type, Race, and Hispanic Origin, 1987*

Working wives contribute substantially to family financial well-being. In 1987, married-couple families in which the wife was in the paid labor force had a median income of $40,422, some 50 percent higher than the median $26,652 for families in which the wife stayed at home. Among black couples, the median family income of those families with a wife in the paid labor force was nearly double that of families where the wife did not go out to work, and among Hispanics, it was nearly 75 percent higher. Families headed by women had a median income of only $14,620 in 1987, although that figure did represent an increase of 3.4 percent in real terms (income adjusted for inflation) over the figure for the previous year, a greater increase than for any other family type.

Table 30. *Selected Sources of Income for Persons Age 15 and Over by Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin, 1986*

Given that the majority of women are now in the labor force, it comes as no surprise that, regardless of race or Hispanic origin, a majority—57 percent in 1986—of all women have income from wages or salaries. Women are only slightly less likely than men to report property and interest income, but here differences by race and Hispanic origin are pronounced. In 1986, white women were over twice as likely as their black or Hispanic counterparts to have received property and interest income, although it should be noted that these figures provide no clues as to the amount that might have been received from either of these two income sources. With the exception of social security, received by some 20 percent of all women in 1986, receipt of income from other sources is relatively rare.

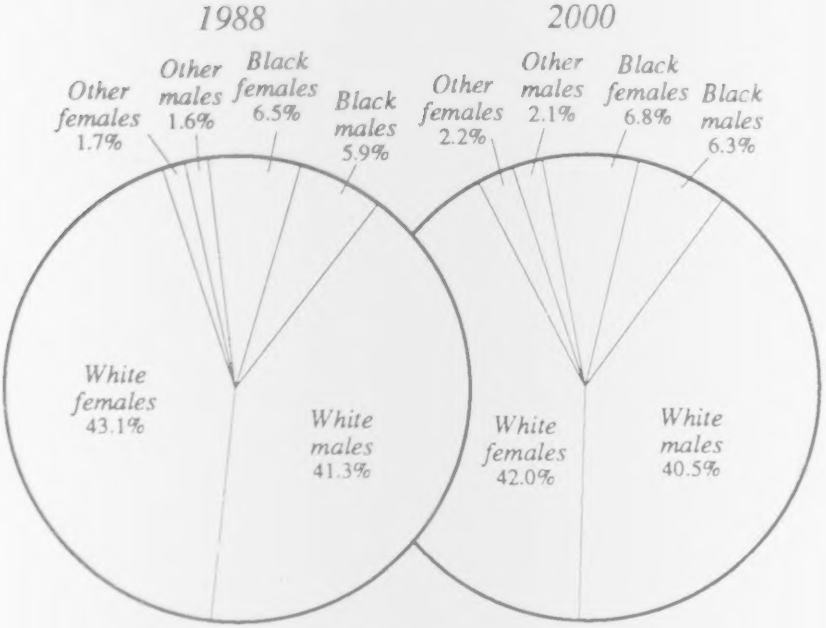
Table 31. *Trends in Poverty Rates of Persons by Family Type, Race, and Hispanic Origin, Selected Years, 1960-87*

Regardless of race or Hispanic origin, the poverty rates of persons living in female-headed families are, and long have been, far above those of persons living in other family types. In 1987, persons in such families were four times as likely as persons in other families to be poor—33.6 percent vs. 8.2 percent. Still, the situation for those families improved slightly between 1986 and 1987, if the slight decline in the poverty rate is any indication. Nonetheless, this improvement occurred only among whites; the poverty rate for blacks and Hispanics living in female-headed families—and indeed in other family types—rose between 1986 and 1987.

Table 32. *Percent of Children Below Poverty Level Living in Female-Headed Households by Race and Hispanic Origin, Selected Years, 1960-87*

Living in a female-headed family means living in poverty for the majority of children in those families, especially if the children are black. In 1987, 79 percent of all poor black children lived in families headed by women, a 50 percentage point increase over the past quarter century.

Figure 1 • POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES[1] BY RACE AND SEX, 1988 AND PROJECTED 2000



Total females 125,995,000 · *Total females* 137,076,000

Total males 120,054,000 *Total males* 131,191,000

[1] Includes Armed Forces overseas.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, January 1989, Table 4.

---

[1] The statistical appendix was prepared by Barbara Andrew with assistance from Cynthia Doran and Kitty Gretsch. Many of the tables and figures in this section update material presented in earlier volumes of *The American Woman*. Labor force, earnings, income, and poverty data are among the tables and figures that are regularly updated. Other statistics may not be included in every edition of the book because the agencies that collect those data do not do so every year or because year-to-year variations tend to be small. Readers might check earlier volumes of *The American Woman* for statistics not included in this edition.

Table 1 • AGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL FEMALE POPULATION AND THE HISPANIC FEMALE POPULATION BY TYPE OF ORIGIN, 1987 (in percentages)

		Hispanic Females[1]					
Age	*All Females*	*Total Hispanic*	*Mexican*	*Puerto Rican*	*Cuban*	*Central or South American*	*Other Hispanic*
Under 5	7.2	10.5	11.9	10.1	7.0	8.8	6.0
5-13	12.2	10.3	19.6	18.5	8.4	14.8	13.1
14-19	8.7	17.6	11.3	10.1	4.1	8.6	8.3
20-24	8.1	10.0	10.1	10.1	10.5	8.9	10.2
25-34	17.5	18.7	18.0	19.7	15.3	22.1	19.8
35-44	13.9	13.2	11.7	14.9	11.5	19.1	13.5
45-54	9.7	8.1	7.2	7.2	14.6	9.4	10.0
55-64	9.5	6.1	5.3	5.2	14.6	5.1	9.3
65 and over	13.3	5.5	4.9	4.2	13.9	3.2	9.9
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number (in thousands)	122,756	9,376	5,693	1,225	506	1,133	819
Median age	32.9	25.8	23.5	25.6	39.0	28.6	31.8

[1] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, December 1988, Table 4.

Table 2 • DEATH RATES[1] FOR ALL CAUSES BY AGE, RACE, AND SEX, 1984–87

	Age			
Race, Sex, and Year	*All Ages*	*15-24*	*25-34*	*35-44*
White females				
1984	391.3	49.6	59.5	123.9
1985	390.6	48.4	58.9	121.2
1986	387.0	51.6	60.6	123.7
1987	386.9	50.0	64.2	115.7
Black females				
1984	585.3	61.6	130.6	285.7
1985	589.1	59.5	136.3	278.4
1986	585.0	59.9	139.7	277.5
1987	579.9	64.0	140.1	295.0
White males				
1984	689.9	138.8	154.3	235.1
1985	688.7	136.3	157.1	241.4
1986	680.7	146.3	167.3	250.8
1987	671.0	145.3	166.7	251.1
Black males				
1984	1,011.7	163.9	335.6	616.0
1985	1,024.0	174.1	347.4	641.8
1986	1,003.4	189.9	379.0	635.9
1987	1,005.4	194.9	370.3	673.5

[1] Rates per 100,000 in specified group.

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, July 1988, Table 5.

Table 3 • PERCENT OF TOTAL POPULATION WITH A FUNCTIONAL LIMITATION[1] BY SEX, AGE, RACE, AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, 1984

Sex and Age	*All Races*	*White*	*Black*	*Hispanic Origin*[2]
Women				
15-64	15.6	14.8	21.7	19.4
65 and over	62.0	60.3	78.9	72.6
Men				
15-64	12.6	12.4	15.3	12.7
65 and over	53.5	52.0	69.0	42.0

[1] Persons who have difficulty seeing, hearing, speaking, walking one-quarter mile or up one flight of stairs, lifting or carrying a full bag of groceries, getting in and out of bed, or getting around inside or outside of a house have a functional limitation.

[2] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, December 1986, Table B.

Table 4 • PERSONS AGE 65 AND OVER WITH A FUNCTIONAL LIMITATION[1] BY SEX, FAMILY RELATIONSHIP, AND SEVERITY OF LIMITATION, 1984 (in percentages)

	Women		*Men*	
Family Relationship	*Total With a Limitation*	*Total With a Severe Limitation*	*Total With a Limitation*	*Total With a Severe Limitation*
Married, spouse present	31.0	27.0	70.7	69.1
Other family member	21.4	25.8	8.5	10.2
Not a family member[2]	47.6	47.3	20.9	20.7
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Persons who have difficulty seeing, hearing, speaking, walking one-quarter mile or up one flight of stairs, lifting or carrying a full bag of groceries, getting in and out of bed, or getting around inside or outside of a house have a functional limitation. Persons with a severe limitation are unable to perform one or more of these functions.

[2] Most of these people live alone.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, December 1986, Table 1.

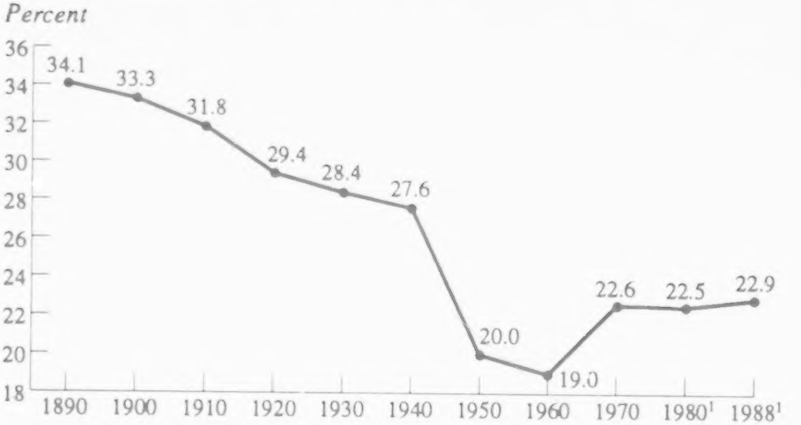
Table 5 • MARITAL STATUS OF PERSONS AGE 15 AND OVER BY SEX, RACE, AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, MARCH 1988 (in percentages)

	All Races		*White*		*Black*		*Hispanic Origin*[1]	
Marital Status	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*
Single (never married)	22.9	29.9	20.9	28.1	36.9	42.5	27.3	36.9
Married, spouse present	53.6	58.3	56.5	60.7	31.6	39.2	51.0	49.3
Married, spouse absent	3.7	2.9	2.8	2.4	9.5	6.3	7.0	6.9
Widowed	11.4	2.5	11.5	2.5	12.2	3.6	6.2	1.7
Divorced	8.4	6.4	8.2	6.2	9.8	8.5	8.5	5.2
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number (in thousands)	98,168	90,284	83,518	77,823	11,618	9,603	6,831	6,776

[1] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, January 1989a, Table 1.

Figure 2 • NEVER-MARRIED WOMEN AS A PERCENT OF ALL WOMEN AGE 14 AND OVER, SELECTED YEARS, 1890–1988



[1] 1980 and 1988 figures include only women age 15 and over.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, September 1975, Series A160-171 and September 1988, Table 3.

Table 6 • NEVER-MARRIED WOMEN BY AGE, SELECTED YEARS, 1940–88 (as a percent of age group)

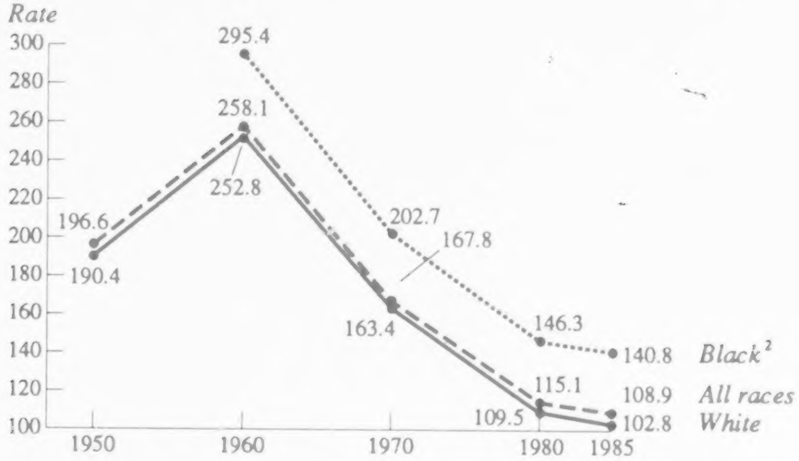
	Year					
Age	*1940*	*1950*	*1960*[1]	*1970*	*1980*	*1988*
15-19	88.1	82.9	83.9	90.3	91.2	94.2
20-24	47.2	32.3	28.4	35.8	50.2	61.1
25-29	22.8	13.3	10.5	10.5	20.9	29.5
30-34	14.7	9.3	6.9	6.2	9.5	16.1
35-44	10.4	8.3	6.1	5.1	5.5	7.6
45-54	8.7	7.8	7.0	4.9	4.7	5.1
55-64	9.0	7.9	8.0	6.8	4.5	4.0
65 and over	9.3	8.9	8.5	7.7	5.9	5.3
All women 15 and over[2]	27.6	20.0	19.0	22.6	22.5	22.9

[1] First year that includes Alaska and Hawaii.

[2] Figures from 1940, 1950, 1960, and 1970 include 14-year-olds.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, September 1975, Series A160-171 and September 1988, Table 3.

Figure 3 • BIRTH RATES[1] FOR WOMEN AGE 20-24 BY RACE, SELECTED YEARS, 1950–85



[1] Live births per 1,000 women between the ages of 20 and 24.

[2] No data available for black women in 1950.

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, March 1988, Table 2.

Table 7 • WOMEN WHO HAVE HAD A CHILD IN THE PRECEDING YEAR BY AGE AND MARITAL STATUS, JUNE 1987 (in percentages)

	Age		
Marital Status	*18-24*	*25-29*	*30-44*
Married, husband present	26.2	59.2	69.8
Married, husband absent[1]	2.7	4.4	4.4
Widowed or divorced	2.6	7.7	14.9
Never married	68.4	28.7	10.9
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number (in thousands)	1,277	1,244	1,180

[1] Includes separated women.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, May 1988, Table A and Table 4.

Table 8 • UNMARRIED-COUPLE HOUSEHOLDS BY PRESENCE OF CHILDREN UNDER 15 YEARS OF AGE, SELECTED YEARS, 1960–88 (in thousands)

Year	*Total*	*Couples Without Children*	*Couples With Children*	*Percent With Children*
1960	439	242	197	44.9
1970	523	327	196	37.5
1980	1,589	1,159	431	27.1
1988	2,588	1,786	802	31.0

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, January 1989a, Table A-7.

Table 9 • LEGAL ABORTION RATIOS BY AGE, RACE, AND MARITAL STATUS OF WOMAN, SELECTED YEARS, 1973–83

Selected Characteristic	*Abortions per 100 Live Births*					
	1973	*1975*	*1977*	*1979*	*1981*	*1983*
Age						
Under 15	74.3	101.5	112.1	121.3	126.4	133.6
15-19	31.7	46.4	57.2	66.0	66.8	67.3
20-24	17.9	25.0	32.5	37.3	37.9	38.1
25-29	12.3	16.6	19.9	22.3	23.2	23.0
30-34	16.5	22.1	22.8	23.3	23.7	22.0
35-39	26.7	37.5	42.4	41.5	40.3	35.4
40 and over	40.2	59.9	74.2	74.7	77.6	69.1
Race						
White	17.5	22.7	26.6	30.7	31.2	29.5
All others	28.9	46.5	57.1	56.8	54.4	56.0
Marital status						
Married	6.2	8.3	9.3	10.7	9.8	9.3
Unmarried	109.8	141.1	158.5	157.8	147.5	135.2
Total	19.6	27.2	32.4	35.8	35.8	34.9

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, March 1988, Table 9.

Table 10 • HOUSEHOLD TYPE, SELECTED YEARS, 1940–88
(in percentages)

Household Type	*1940*	*1950*	*1960*	*1970*	*1980*	*1988*
Married-couple family	76.0	78.2	74.3	70.5	60.8	56.9
Other family, male householder	4.3	2.7	2.3	1.9	2.1	3.0
Other family, female householder	9.8	8.3	8.4	8.7	10.8	11.6
Nonfamily, male householder	4.6	3.8	5.1	6.4	10.9	12.4
Nonfamily, female householder	5.3	7.0	9.8	12.4	15.4	16.1
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of households (in thousands)	34,949	43,554	52,799	63,401	80,776	91,066

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, September 1988, Table 6.

Table 11 • FAMILY TYPE BY RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, SELECTED YEARS, 1970–86 (in percentages)

Family Type	*1970*	*1980*	*1985*	*1986*
ALL RACES				
Married-couple families	86.7	81.7	80.1	79.5
Wife in paid labor force	NA	(50.2)	(54.0)	(56.2)
Wife not in paid labor force	NA	(49.8)	(46.0)	(43.8)
Female householder, no husband present	10.9	15.1	16.1	16.3
Male householder, no wife present	2.4	3.2	3.8	4.2
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of families (in thousands)	51,237	60,309	63,558	65,133
WHITE				
Married-couple families	88.6	85.1	83.5	83.2
Wife in paid labor force	NA	(49.3)	(52.9)	(55.3)
Wife not in paid labor force	NA	(50.6)	(47.1)	(44.7)
Female householder, no husband present	9.1	11.9	12.9	12.9
Male householder, no wife present	2.2	3.0	3.6	3.9
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of families (in thousands)	46,022	52,710	54,991	56,044
BLACK				
Married-couple families	68.0	53.7	53.2	51.3
Wife in paid labor force	NA	(59.6)	(64.1)	(65.8)
Wife not in paid labor force	NA	(40.4)	(35.9)	(34.2)
Female householder, no husband present	28.2	41.7	41.5	42.8
Male householder, no wife present	3.7	4.6	5.3	5.9
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of families (in thousands)	4,774	6,317	6,921	7,177
HISPANIC ORIGIN[1]				
Married-couple families	NA	73.1	70.4	69.8
Wife in paid labor force	NA	(46.2)	(49.1)	(51.7)
Wife not in paid labor force	NA	(53.8)	(50.9)	(48.3)
Female householder, no husband present	NA	21.8	23.3	23.4
Male householder, no wife present	NA	5.1	6.3	6.8
Total percent		100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of families (in thousands)	NA	3,235	4,206	4,588

[1] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, March 1971, Table 6; August 1981, Table 1; April 1986, Table 1; August 1988, Table 1.

Table 12 • FAMILIES BY LABOR FORCE STATUS OF HUSBAND AND WIFE AND BY PRESENCE OF CHILDREN, 1980, 1985, AND 1987 (in percentages)

Family Type	*1980*	*1985*	*1987*
Husband working, wife not in labor force	28.8	23.5	21.9
Without children	10.7	9.4	9.0
With children	18.2	14.2	12.9
Husband and wife in labor force	38.2	39.9	41.0
Without children	16.1	17.1	17.4
With children	22.1	22.8	23.6
Other family type[1]	32.9	36.6	37.0
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number (in thousands)	58,426	62,706	64,491

[1] Includes families headed by a single parent, married-couple families with wife only in the labor force, and married-couple families with neither spouse in the labor force.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, September 1981, Tables 1 and 18; September 1986, Tables 1 and 17; May 1988a, Tables 1 and 18.

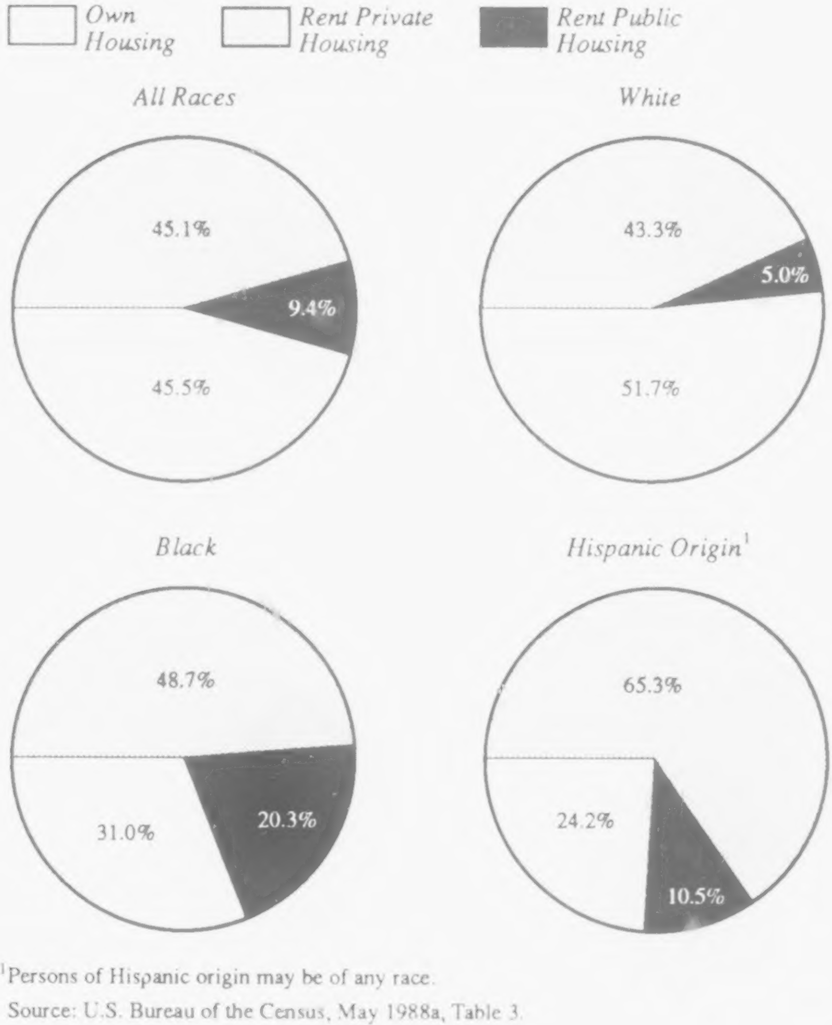
Table 13 • LIVING ARRANGEMENTS OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 BY RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, 1980 AND 1988 (in percentages)

	1980			*1988*		
Children Living With	*White*	*Black*	*Hispanic Origin*[1]	*White*	*Black*	*Hispanic Origin*[1]
Two parents	82.7	42.2	75.4	78.9	38.6	66.3
One parent	15.1	45.8	21.1	18.9	54.1	30.2
Mother only	13.5	43.9	19.6	16.0	51.1	27.2
Father only	1.6	1.9	1.5	2.9	3.0	3.0
Other relatives	1.7	10.7	3.4	1.6	6.4	2.7
Nonrelatives	0.5	1.3	0.1	0.6	1.0	0.9

[1] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, January 1989a, Table A-4.

Figure 4 • FAMILIES WITH FEMALE HOUSEHOLDERS, BY HOUSING OWNERSHIP OR RENTERSHIP AND BY RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN OF HOUSEHOLDER, MARCH 1987 (in percentages)



[1] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, May 1988a, Table 3.

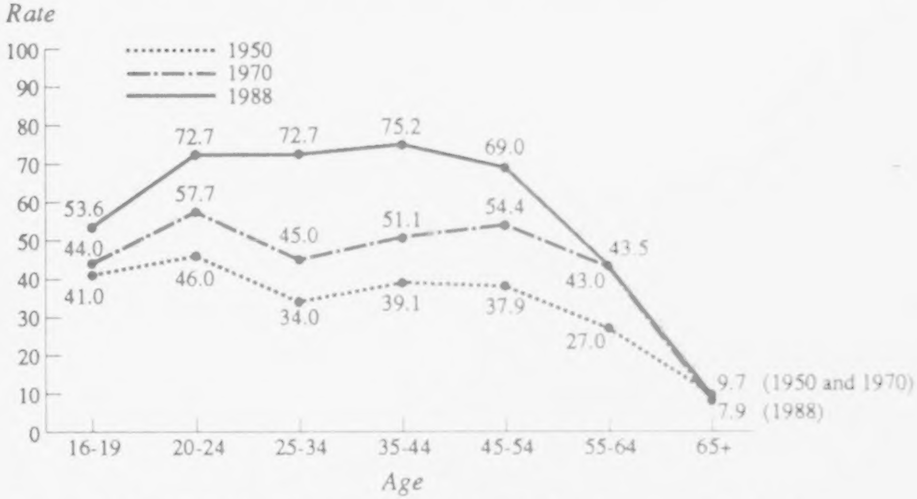
Table 14 • CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES FOR PERSONS AGE 16 AND OVER BY SEX, RACE, AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, SELECTED YEARS, 1950–88 (in percentages)

	Total		*White*		*Black*		*Hispanic Origin*[1]	
Year	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*
1950	33.9	86.4	—	—	—	—	—	—
1955	35.7	85.4	34.5	85.4	—	—	—	—
1960	37.7	83.3	36.5	83.4	—	—	—	—
1965	39.3	80.7	38.1	80.8	—	—	—	—
1970	43.3	79.7	42.6	80.0	—	—	—	—
1975	46.3	77.9	45.9	78.7	48.8	70.9	43.2	80.7
1980	51.5	77.4	51.2	78.2	53.1	70.3	47.8	81.6
1985	54.5	76.3	54.1	77.0	56.5	70.8	49.4	80.4
1986	55.3	76.3	55.0	76.9	56.9	71.2	50.1	81.0
1987	56.0	76.2	55.7	76.8	58.0	71.1	52.0	81.0
1988	56.6	76.2	56.4	76.9	58.0	71.0	53.2	81.9

[1] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, June 1985, Table 5; January 1986, Table 39; January 1987, Table 39; January 1989, Table 39.

Figure 5 • CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES FOR WOMEN BY AGE, 1950, 1970, AND 1988



Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, June 1985, Table 5, and January 1989, Table 3.

Table 15 • LABOR FORCE STATUS[1] BY YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED AND SEX, MARCH 1978 AND MARCH 1988 (in percentages)

	Total		*Women*		*Men*	
Labor Force Status	*1978*	*1988*	*1978*	*1988*	*1978*	*1988*
Labor force distribution	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 4 years of high school	23.8	14.7	22.0	12.4	25.0	16.5
4 years of high school	39.3	39.9	45.0	43.3	35.4	37.3
1-3 years of college	16.4	19.7	16.0	21.2	16.8	18.5
4 years of college or more	20.5	25.7	17.0	23.1	22.9	27.8
Labor force participation rate	72.5	77.5	56.5	67.1	89.8	88.6
Less than 4 years of high school	61.6	60.8	44.2	45.4	80.6	76.0
4 years of high school	72.5	76.9	58.2	66.9	92.0	89.5
1-3 years of college	77.8	82.5	61.9	74.7	93.3	91.3
4 years of college or more	85.6	88.4	70.8	80.8	95.6	94.4

[1] Includes only persons between the ages of 25 and 64.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, August 29, 1988, Table 1.

Table 16 • FULL- AND PART-TIME WORK EXPERIENCE OF WORKING WOMEN BY AGE, 1966 AND 1986 (in percentages)

	All Women Age 25-54		*Age 25-34*		*Age 35-44*		*Age 45-54*	
Work Experience	*1966*	*1986*	*1966*	*1986*	*1966*	*1986*	*1966*	*1986*
Work at full-time job	72.9	74.8	73.8	75.3	71.3	74.3	73.5	74.7
50-52 weeks	45.5	57.1	38.6	55.1	45.2	57.8	51.7	59.8
40-49 weeks	8.3	6.5	8.8	7.2	8.2	6.0	7.8	6.0
27-39 weeks	6.5	4.2	7.6	4.6	6.2	4.2	5.8	3.3
1-26 weeks	12.6	7.0	18.8	8.4	11.7	6.3	8.2	5.6
Work at part-time job	27.2	25.3	26.1	24.7	28.7	25.8	26.2	25.2
50-52 weeks	9.8	11.4	6.8	10.3	10.9	12.0	11.2	12.7
40-49 weeks	2.9	3.3	2.5	3.3	3.0	3.1	3.0	3.3
27-39 weeks	3.1	2.8	2.7	2.7	3.4	2.9	3.0	2.6
1-26 weeks	11.4	7.8	14.1	8.4	11.4	7.8	9.0	6.6

Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, March 1988, Table 3.

Table 17 • LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCE OF WOMEN WITH YOUNG CHILDREN, 1960, 1986, AND 1988 (in percentages)

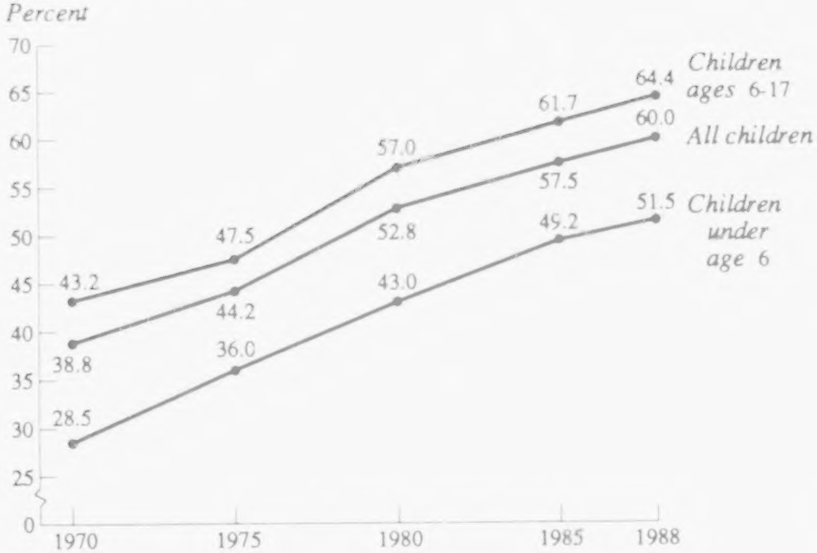
	All Women			*Married, Husband Present*			*Other, Ever Married*[1]		
Labor Force Status	*1960*	*1985*	*1988*[2]	*1960*	*1985*	*1988*[2]	*1960*	*1985*	*1988*[2]
Women with children age 3 and younger									
In the labor force	16.5	50.8	52.5	15.3	50.9	54.5	32.4	57.4	53.2
Employed full-time	10.4	29.7	32.5	9.5	30.7	33.7	22.2	33.1	37.0
Employed part-time	4.6	15.1	15.1	4.5	16.3	17.1	6.3	12.9	9.4
Women with children age 6 and younger									
In the labor force	20.2	54.4	56.1	18.6	53.8	57.1	39.8	64.6	60.8
Employed full-time	13.2	33.3	35.6	11.9	33.2	35.6	28.6	42.9	45.1
Employed part-time	5.3	15.1	15.7	5.2	16.5	18.0	6.3	12.3	8.6

[1] Includes widowed, divorced, and married with an absent spouse.

[2] Figures for women with children younger than age 3 or younger than age 6.

Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), April 1961, Tables G and I; and unpublished BLS data.

Figure 6 • PERCENT OF CHILDREN WITH MOTHER IN THE LABOR FORCE BY AGE OF CHILDREN, SELECTED YEARS, 1970–88



Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), June 1985, Tables 4, 5, and 6; September 19, 1985; and unpublished BLS data.

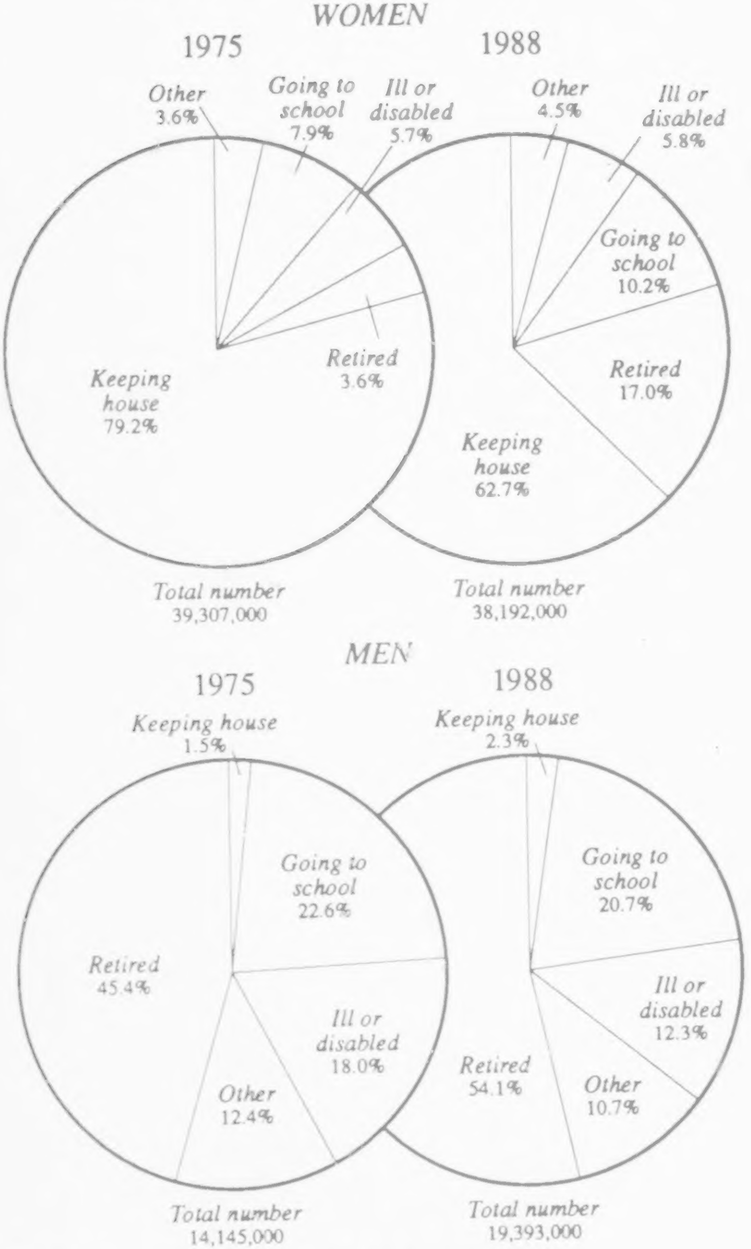
Table 18 • UNEMPLOYMENT RATES FOR PERSONS AGE 16 AND OVER BY SEX, RACE, AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, SELECTED YEARS, 1950–88 (in percentages)

	All Races		*White*		*Black*		*Hispanic Origin*[1]	
Year	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*
1950	5.7	5.1	—	—	—	—	—	—
1955	4.9	4.2	4.3	3.7	—	—	—	—
1960	5.9	5.4	5.3	4.8	—	—	—	—
1965	5.5	4.0	5.0	3.6	—	—	—	—
1970	5.9	4.4	5.4	4.0	—	—	—	—
1975	9.3	7.9	8.6	7.2	14.8	14.8	13.5	11.4
1980	7.4	6.9	6.5	6.1	14.0	14.5	10.7	9.7
1985	7.4	7.0	6.4	6.1	14.9	15.3	11.0	10.2
1987	6.2	6.2	5.2	5.4	13.2	12.7	8.9	8.7
1988	5.6	5.5	4.7	4.7	11.7	11.7	8.3	8.1

[1] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, June 1985, Table 27; January 1986, Table 39; and January 1989, Table 39.

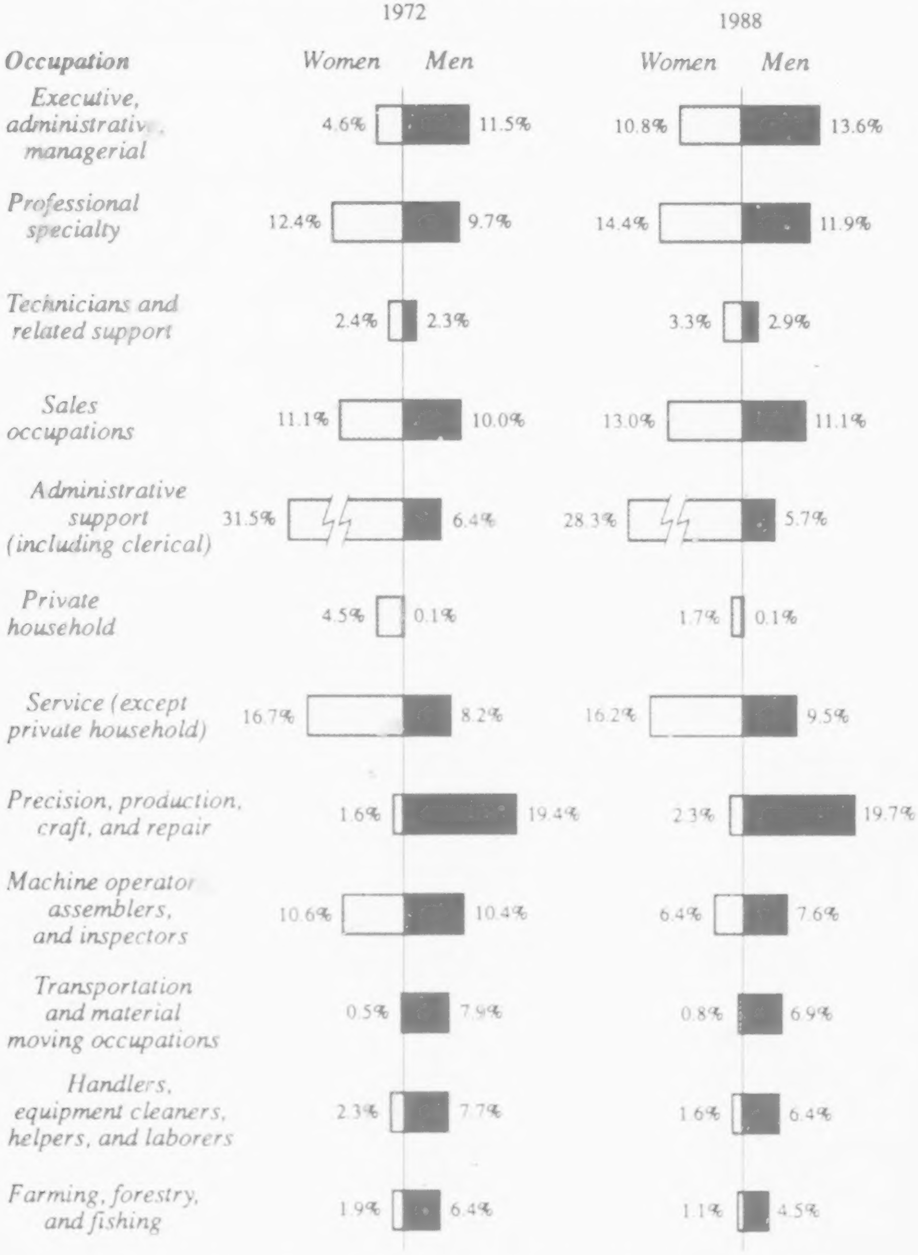
Figure 7 • REASONS FOR NOT BEING IN THE LABOR FORCE BY SEX, 1975 AND 1988[1]



[1] Includes only persons out of the labor force by choice.

Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, January 1976, Table 29 and January 1989, Table A-54.

Figure 8 • OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYED WOMEN AND MEN, 1972 AND 1988 (in percentages)



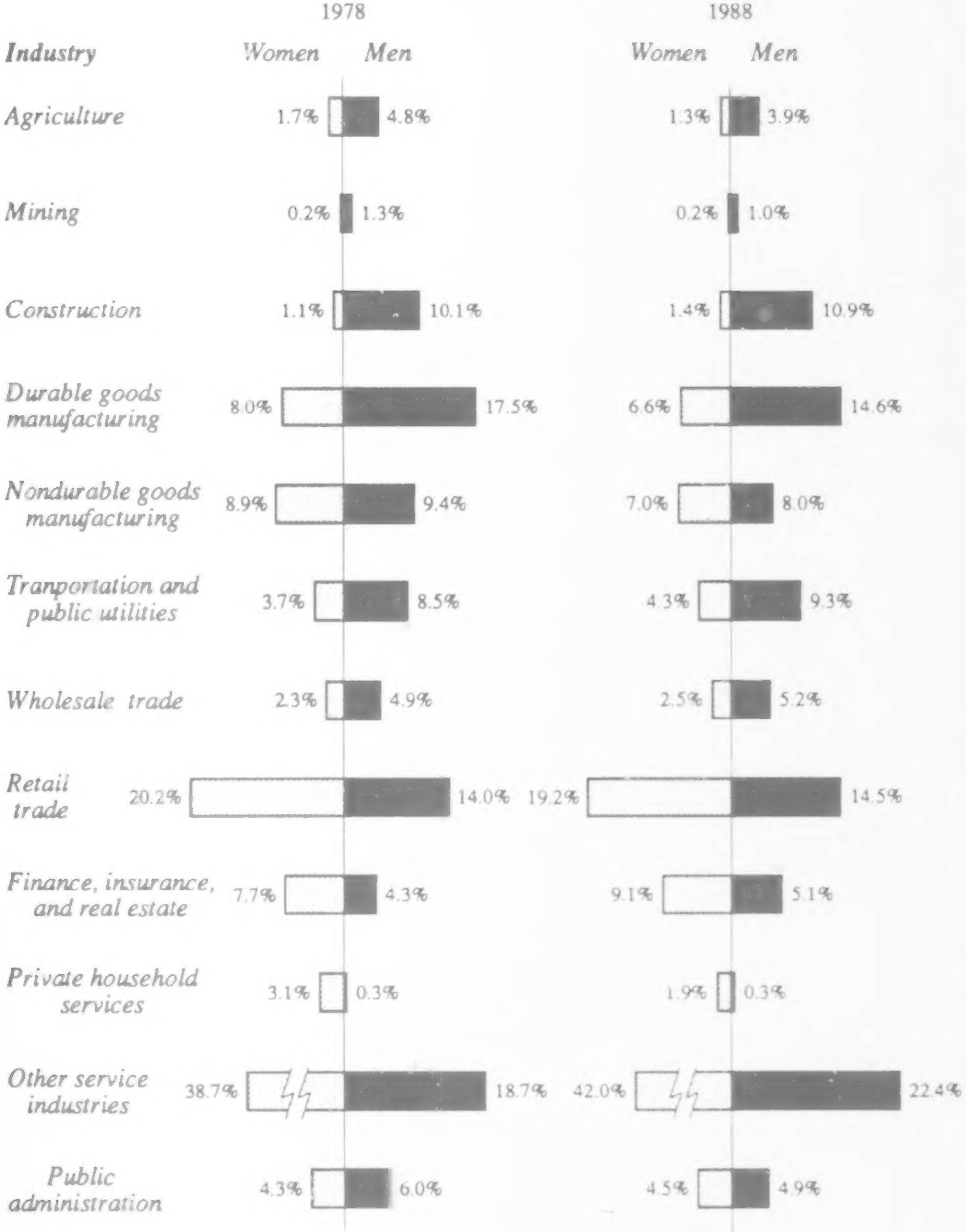
Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, January 1984, Table 1, and January 1989, Table 21.

Table 19 • WOMEN AS A PERCENT OF ALL WORKERS IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONS, 1975 AND 1988

	Women as a Percent of Total Employed	
Occupation	*1975*	*1988*
Airplane pilot, navigator	—	3.1
Architect	4.3	14.6
Auto mechanic	0.5	0.7
Bartender	35.2	49.6
Bus driver	37.7	48.5
Cab driver, chauffeur	8.7	12.5
Carpenter	0.6	1.5
Child care worker	93.8	97.3
Computer programmer	25.6	32.2
Computer systems analyst	14.8	29.5
Data entry keyer	92.8	88.2
Data processing equipment repairer	1.8	8.8
Dental assistant	100.0	98.7
Dentist	1.8	9.3
Economist	13.1	35.3
Editor, reporter	44.6	51.1
Elementary school teacher	85.4	84.8
College/university teacher	31.1	38.5
Firefighter	—	2.1
Garage, gas station attendant	4.7	6.2
Lawyer, judge	7.1	19.5
Librarian	81.1	85.4
Mail carrier	8.7	22.0
Office machine repairer	1.7	6.4
Physician	13.0	20.0
Police officer	2.7	13.4
Registered nurse	97.0	94.6
Secretary	99.1	99.1
Social worker	60.8	66.0
Telephone installer, repairer	4.8	12.1
Telephone operator	93.3	89.8
Waiter/waitress	91.1	82.6
Welder	4.4	4.9

Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, January 1976, Table 2 and January 1989, Table 22.

Figure 9 • INDUSTRY DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYED WOMEN AND MEN, 1978 AND 1988 (in percentages)



Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, January 1978, Table 27, and January 1989, Tables 21 and 25.

Table 20 • WOMEN AS A PERCENT OF EMPLOYED SCIENTISTS (BY SPECIALTY) AND ENGINEERS, 1976 AND 1986

Field/Specialty	*1976*	*1986*
Scientists	18.6	27.4
Physical scientists	8.6	13.3
Mathematical scientists	23.7	25.9
Computer specialists	17.3	28.9
Environmental scientists	7.1	11.6
Life scientists	15.9	25.0
Psychologists	31.6	45.4
Social scientists	25.5	31.3
Engineers	1.6	4.1
Total scientists and engineers	8.6	15.1
Total number	199,700	698,600

Source: National Science Foundation, January 1988, Appendix Table 1.

Table 21 • EMPLOYMENT SECTOR OF FEMALE SCIENTISTS BY RACIAL/ETHNIC GROUP AND OF ALL MALE SCIENTISTS, 1986 (in percentages)

Sector of Employment	*White Women*	*Black Women*	*Asian Women*	*Native American Women*	*Hispanic Women*[1]	*All Men*
Business and industry	56.3	50.7	61.2	29.6	54.0	69.8
Educational institutions	21.7	17.4	16.5	25.9	19.9	12.2
Federal government	6.1	11.3	4.1	14.8	6.1	7.9
Other[2]	15.9	20.6	18.2	29.7	20.0	10.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

[2] Includes state/local/other governments, military, nonprofit organizations, hospitals/clinics, others, and no report.

Source: National Science Foundation, January 1988, Appendix Tables 15 and 16.

Table 22 • WOMEN IN ELECTIVE OFFICE, SELECTED OFFICES, 1975–89

Elected Officeholders	*Percent Female*									*Number of Women*	
	1975	*1977*	*1979*	*1981*	*1983*	*1986*	*1987*	*1988*	*1989*	*1987*	*1989*
Members of U.S. Congress	4	3	3	3	4	5	5	5	5	25	29
Statewide elective officials	10	8	11	11	13	14	14	12	14	43	45
Members of state legislatures	8	9	10	12	13	15	16	16	17	1,156	1,258

Source: Center for the American Woman and Politics, May 1986 and December 1988.

Table 23 • HISTORICAL DATA ON THE NUMBER OF WOMEN DIRECTORS ON FORTUNE BOARDS, SELECTED YEARS, 1969–88 (in numbers)

Year	*Total Number of Women Directors*	*Number of Directorships Held by Women*	*Number of Companies with Women on Their Boards*	*Percentage of Companies with Women on Their Boards*
1969	46	NA	NA	NA
1976	147	NA	175	13
1977	204	NA	228	18
1979	262	361	316	24
1980	317	461	378	29
1981	336	490	398	30
1982	336	499	405	31
1983	367	527	427	33
1984[1]	313	455	364	36
1985[1]	339	511	407	41
1986[1]	395	576	439	44
1987[1]	424	628	471	47
1988[1]	426	632	474	47

[1] The statistics are based on the new Fortune 1000 classification rather than the former Fortune 1350 classification and thus appear to have declined; figures actually reflect a proportionate increase.

Source: Reproduced by permission of Catalyst, 250 Park Avenue South, New York, New York 10003.

Table 24 • WOMEN IN THE ARMED SERVICES, 1973 AND 1987

	1973		*1987*	
Service	*Number of Women*	*Percent of Service*	*Number of Women*	*Percent of Service*
Air Force	19,750	2.9	75,308	12.5
Army	20,736	2.6	82,700	10.7
Marine Corps	2,288	1.2	9,788	4.9
Navy	12,628	2.3	53,161	9.1
Total	55,402	2.5	220,957	10.2

Source: U.S. General Accounting Office, September 1988, Table 1.1.

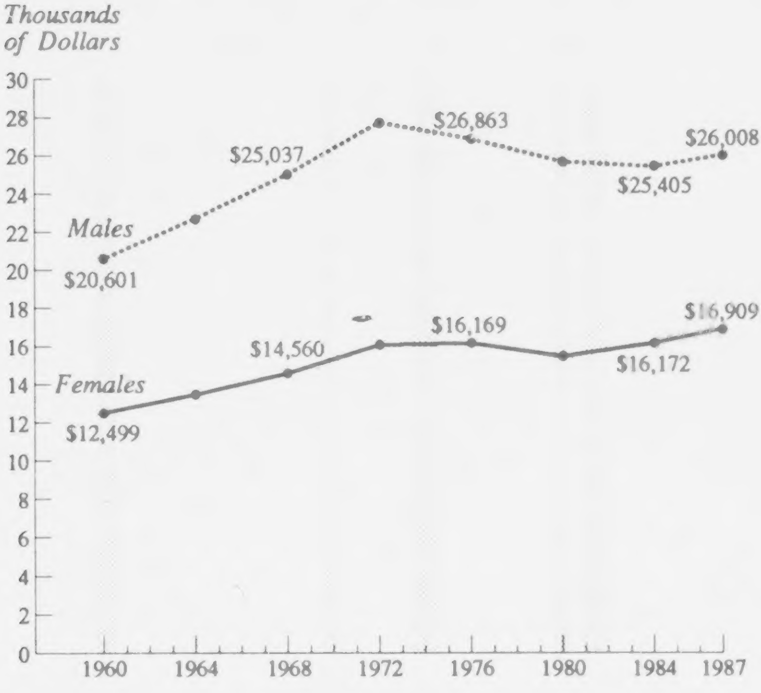
Table 25 • WOMEN AND MEN APPLYING TO AND BEING ACCEPTED BY MEDICAL SCHOOLS— 1973/74–1988/89

Academic	*No. of Applicants*		*No. Accepted*		*% Accepted*	
Year	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*
1973-74	33,304	7,202	11,488	2,847	34.5	39.5
1974-75	33,912	8,712	11,674	3,392	34.4	38.9
1975-76[1]	32,515	9,575	11,619	3,639	35.7	38.0
1976-77	31,911	10,244	11,852	3,922	37.1	38.3
1977-78	30,374	10,195	11,896	4,081	39.2	40.0
1978-79	27,075	9,561	12,352	4,175	45.6	43.7
1979-80	25,919	10,222	12,156	4,730	46.9	46.3
1980-81	25,436	10,664	12,196	4,950	47.9	46.4
1981-82	25,054	11,673	11,953	5,333	47.7	45.7
1982-83	24,045	11,685	11,843	5,451	49.3	46.7
1983-84	23,239	11,961	11,577	5,632	49.8	47.1
1984-85	23,468	12,476	11,463	5,731	48.8	45.9
1985-86	21,331	11,562	11,370	5,858	53.3	50.7
1986-87	20,056	11,267	11,159	5,933	55.6	52.7
1987-88	17,712	10,411	10,822	6,205	61.1	59.6
1988-89	16,457	10,264	10,785	6,323	65.5	61.6

[1] Excludes 213 applicants for whom gender information was not available.

Source: Association of American Medical Colleges, provided by Janet Bickel, 1989.

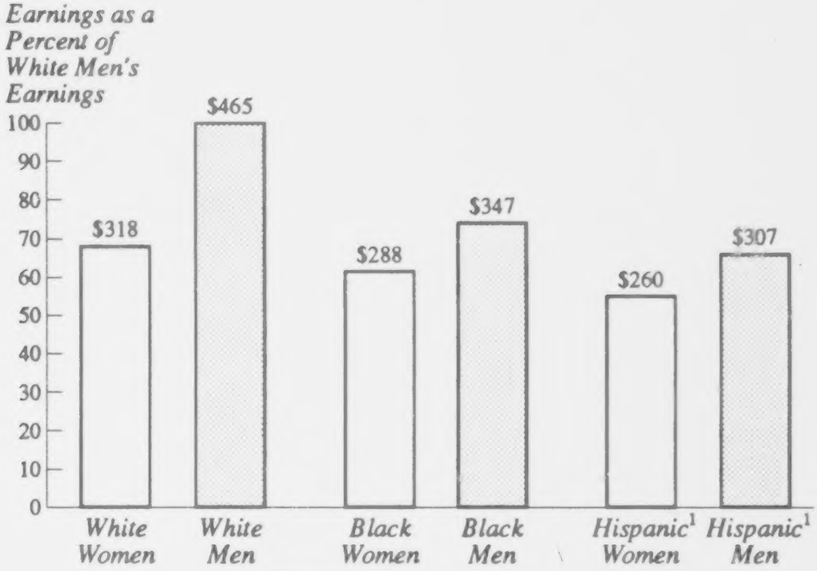
Figure 10 • MEDIAN ANNUAL EARNINGS OF YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME WORKERS BY SEX, SELECTED YEARS, 1960–87 (in 1987 dollars)[1]



[1] Shaded columns indicate recessionary periods.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, August 1988, Table A.

Figure 11 • MEDIAN USUAL WEEKLY EARNINGS OF FULL-TIME WAGE AND SALARY WORKERS BY SEX, RACE, AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, 1988 (in dollars)



[1] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, January 1989, Table 61.

Table 26 • MEDIAN WEEKLY EARNINGS OF FULL-TIME WAGE AND SALARY WORKERS BY SEX AND AGE, 1988

	Median Weekly Earnings (in dollars)		
Age	*Women*	*Men*	*Women's Earnings as a Percent of Men's Earnings*
16-24	235	261	90.0
25-34	326	420	77.6
35-44	353	517	68.3
45-54	339	549	61.7
55-64	317	508	62.4
65 and over	279	394	70.8
Total, age 16 and over	315	449	70.2

Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, January 1989, Table 61.

Table 27 • AVERAGE (MEAN) EARNINGS OF YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME WORKERS[1] BY SEX AND EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, 1987 (in dollars)

Educational Attainment	*Women*	*Men*
Fewer than 8 years of school	10,940	17,789
1-3 years of high school	14,270	23,565
High school graduates	17,919	27,293
1-3 years of college	21,441	32,125
College graduates	25,544	40,962
1 or more years of post-graduate work	32,322	51,149
All education levels	20,796	32,892

[1] Workers 25 years and over.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, February 1989, Table 35.

Table 28 • STATE GOVERNMENT[1] PAY EQUITY ACTIVITY, 1984, 1986, AND 1988 (number of states reporting)

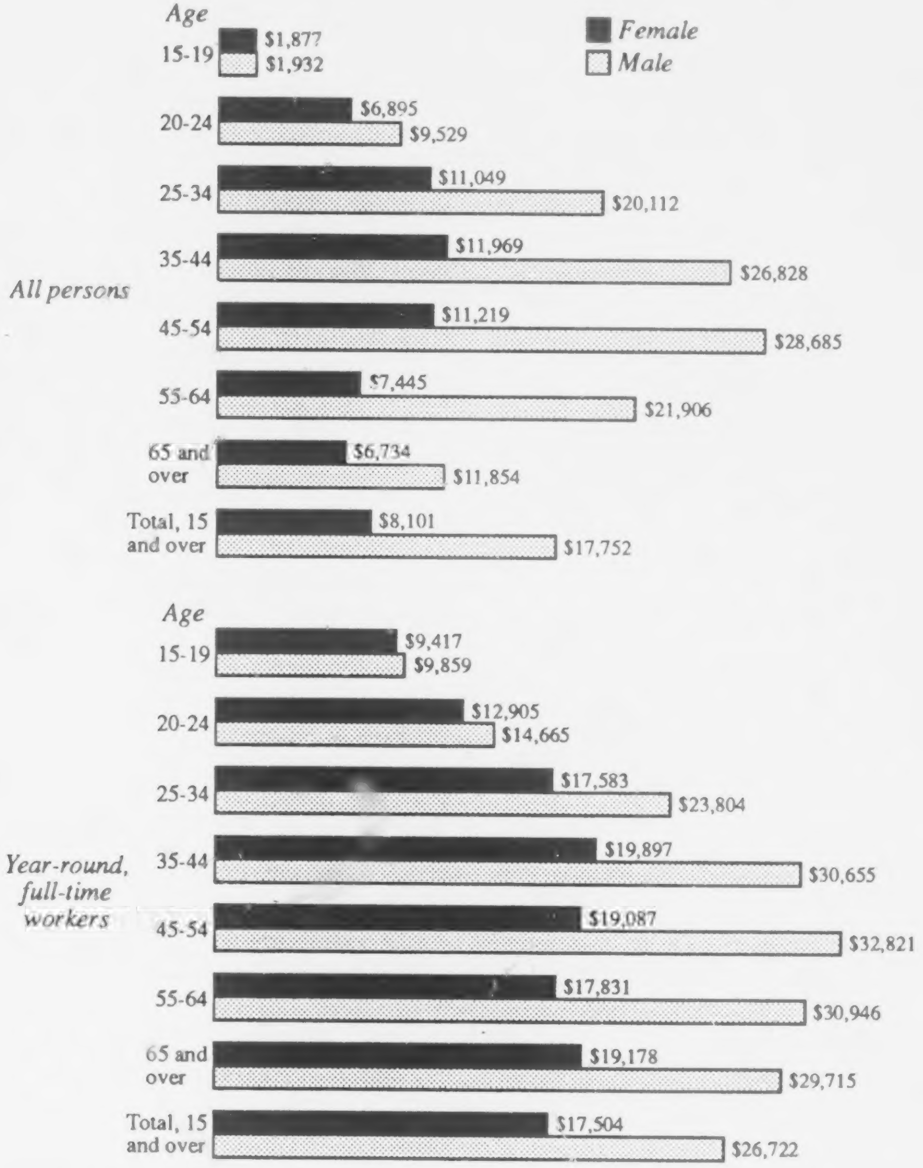
Activity[2]	*1984*	*1986*	*1988*
Research/data collection	20	42	43
Pay equity study	11	19	23
Pay equity adjustments	4	11	20
Implementation	1	3	6
No action	27	7	7

[1] Results include the District of Columbia.

[2] Research/data collection on pay equity involves activities preliminary to a pay equity study, such as conducting general research on pay equity. Conducting a pay study involves the study of job classification and compensation systems. Pay equity adjustments are increases in salary appropriated to female-dominated or minority-dominated job categories. Implementation occurs when all elimination of sex-bias from wage-setting procedures is completed and when all appropriated salary adjustments are implemented.

Source: National Committee on Pay Equity, 1988, p. 14.

Figure 12 • MEDIAN INCOME OF PERSONS AGE 15 AND OVER BY AGE, SEX, AND YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT STATUS, 1987 (in dollars)



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, August 1988, Table 10.

Table 29 • MEDIAN ANNUAL INCOME OF FAMILIES BY FAMILY TYPE, RACE, AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, 1987 (in dollars)

	Family Type			
	All Races	*White*	*Black*	*Hispanic Origin*[1]
Married couple	34,700	35,295	27,182	24,677
Wife in paid labor force	40,422	41,023	33,333	31,354
Wife not in paid labor force	26,652	27,394	16,822	17,967
Male householder, no wife present	24,804	26,230	17,455	19,411
Female householder, no husband present	14,620	17,018	9,710	9,805

[1] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, August 1988, Table 1.

Table 30 • SELECTED SOURCES OF INCOME FOR PERSONS AGE 15 AND OVER BY SEX, RACE, AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, 1986 (percent receiving income from source)

	Women				*Men*			
Source	*Total*	*White*	*Black*	*Hispanic Origin*[1]	*Total*	*White*	*Black*	*Hispanic Origin*[1]
Wage or salary	56.7	56.6	56.5	50.9	71.3	72.1	66.1	75.1
Nonfarm self-employment	3.7	4.0	1.1	2.1	8.3	8.9	3.6	5.7
Property income[2]	55.9	60.5	24.4	28.6	56.7	60.8	25.8	29.0
Interest	54.2	58.8	22.8	27.2	54.7	58.8	24.1	27.6
Social security or railroad retirement	19.9	20.9	16.1	9.9	15.7	16.2	13.9	8.1
Public assistance and supplemental security income (SSI)	6.1	4.4	18.2	12.2	2.3	1.8	5.5	3.7
Public assistance and welfare income	4.0	2.8	12.5	9.0	0.9	0.7	2.0	1.7
Supplemental security income (SSI)	2.4	1.8	6.3	3.5	1.4	1.1	3.7	2.1
Retirement and annuities	5.7	6.1	3.3	1.8	9.9	10.6	5.8	3.5

[1] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

[2] Includes dividends, interest, net rental income, income from estates or trusts, and net royalties.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, June 1988, Table 37.

Table 31 • TRENDS IN POVERTY RATES OF PERSONS BY FAMILY TYPE, RACE, AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, SELECTED YEARS, 1960–87

	All Races		*White*		*Black*		*Hispanic Origin*[1]	
Year	*Female-Headed*	*All Others*	*Female-Headed*	*All Others*	*Female-Headed*	*All Others*	*Female-Headed*	*All Others*
1960	49.5	18.5	42.3	14.9	70.0[2]	50.7[2]	NA	NA
1965	46.0	13.2	38.5	10.3	65.1[3]	33.4[3]	NA	NA
1970	38.2	8.2	31.4	6.8	58.8	21.7	NA	NA
1976	34.4	7.1	27.3	6.0	54.7	16.9	54.3	17.9
1977	32.8	6.9	25.5	5.9	53.9	16.6	53.3	15.3
1978	32.3	6.6	24.9	5.7	53.1	15.1	53.3	14.6
1979	32.0	7.0	24.9	5.9	52.2	16.2	48.9	15.5
1980	33.8	8.0	27.1	6.9	53.1	17.9	52.5	18.5
1981	35.2	8.8	28.4	7.6	55.8	19.4	54.0	18.6
1982	36.2	9.8	28.7	8.7	57.4	20.0	57.4	22.0
1983	35.6	10.1	28.3	8.8	55.9	20.5	53.2	20.9
1984	34.0	9.3	27.3	8.2	52.9	19.1	54.3	20.9
1985	33.5	8.9	27.3	7.9	51.8	16.4	54.2	21.1
1986	34.2	8.2	27.9	7.3	52.9	15.2	51.3	19.9
1987	33.6	8.2	26.4	7.1	53.8	17.2	53.0	20.8

[1] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

[2] 1959.

[3] 1966.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, August 1988, Table 16.

Table 32 • PERCENT OF CHILDREN[1] BELOW POVERTY LEVEL LIVING IN FEMALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS BY RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, SELECTED YEARS, 1960–87

Year	*All Races*	*White*	*Black*	*Hispanic Origin*[2]
1960	23.7	21.0	29.4[3]	NA
1965	31.7	27.1	44.1[4]	NA
1970	45.8	36.6	60.7	NA
1976	55.4	45.0	73.9	44.6
1977	56.4	45.3	74.9	48.9
1978	58.5	46.3	78.0	48.9
1979	56.4	44.5	77.1	44.4
1980	52.8	41.3	75.4	47.1
1981	52.2	42.0	73.2	48.5
1982	51.0	39.2	74.5	46.8
1983	50.2	39.7	74.6	45.2
1984	52.4	41.8	74.9	47.2
1985	53.8	43.0	78.4	49.6
1986	56.7	45.7	80.5	49.5
1987	56.9	46.0	79.0	47.2

[1] Refers to related children under age 18 in families.

[2] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

[3] 1959.

[4] 1966.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, August 1985, Table 16 and August 1988, Table 16.

Chapter Notes

ONE A Portrait of African American Families in the United States

1. Unless otherwise indicated, the statistics in this chapter can be found in the Census Bureau publications listed in the references.
2. African Americans are now moving back to the South to take advantage of new employment opportunities and the more desirable quality of life outside of large northern cities. They are also expressing a desire to be closer to their extended families. This reverse migration will show up even more sharply in the 1990 census than it has to date (Weiss, 1989).

TWO Women and Affordable Housing

1. Unless otherwise indicated, all data used in this chapter are derived from the American Housing Survey (AHS) for 1985, the most recent year for which there are published AHS data. The AHS reported a total of 99.9 million housing units, including mobile homes, in the United States in that year. Of this total, 3.2 million units were seasonal (U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development and U.S. Bureau of the Census, December 1988, Table 1-6). Of the remaining 96.7 million "year-round" units, 8.3 million were vacant for various reasons (2.5 million of these were for rent). The housing survey data in this chapter regarding households pertain to households in the 88.4 million housing units that were *occupied* in 1985.
2. For convenience, the terms used by the Census Bureau in the Housing Survey have been shortened for this chapter. The term "married couples" is used instead of "married couples, no nonrelatives present"; the term "families" is used instead of "two-or-more person households"; and "single" men or women, as the case may be, instead of "male" or "female one-person households."

   It should also be noted here that the Housing Survey category of "married couple, no nonrelatives present" is not strictly comparable to the "married couple" category used in the Current Population Survey (CPS). However, since CPS figures for March 1985 show that 99 percent of married-couple households had no nonrelatives present, this distinction is ignored here.

3. The Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) used to publish a series of "urban family budgets" for a family of four, with adjustments for other household types. A rough measure of the cost of nonhousing needs for various household types in 1985 can be estimated by using the 1981 Bureau of Labor Statistics "lower budget" adjusted by the change in the Consumer Price Index since 1981. This is a higher standard than the poverty level (which is calculated by multiplying the estimated cost of a bare subsistence-level food budget by three). BLS in the past has described its "lower budget" as providing a modest but adequate standard of living.
4. This analysis is based on the federal government's "housing assistance" budget subfunction, which comprises federal programs and activities that directly relate to housing. It therefore excludes the amount of federal cash payments (such as social security, Supplemental Security Income [SSI], or Aid to Families with Dependent Children [AFDC]) spent on housing by recipients of those payments.
5. The term "incremental reservations" is used to denote either additional *households* to be assisted through vouchers and Section 8 Existing, or additional subsidized *units* to be provided through such programs as Section 202 housing for elderly and handicapped persons and/or public housing. Each year, in addition to incremental reservations, HUD budget authority is provided for some units or households that are currently subsidized (for example, to replace units that are demolished or otherwise lost to the inventory).

THREE **Child Care in the United States**

1. More recently, some states have attempted to integrate—at least partially—education and child care needs. In at least four states (Massachusetts, Vermont, Florida, and New Jersey), recent prekindergarten legislation permits school districts to fund full working-day child care, and, indeed, a number of these programs are being funded.
2. Congressional interest in child care legislation did not die with the 100th Congress. As this chapter is written, the full Senate has already acted on S. 5, a compromise bill that seeks to satisfy some of the major concerns about ABC.

   The key provisions of S. 5 include $1.75 billion in spending for direct services, making the dependent care tax credit refundable for low-income families, allowing states to set their own minimum health and safety standards with the help of federal incentive grants and model federal standards, and permitting child care vouchers to be used for care in sectarian programs, while prohibiting such programs to discriminate on the basis of religion in hiring staff or admitting children. S. 5 would also provide a health tax credit to families with incomes under $18,000. The Senate defeated an administration-backed amendment that would have relied mainly on tax credits to help low-income families purchase child care services, rather than on spending for direct services.

The House Education and Labor Committee, meanwhile, completed work on H.R. 3. As finally approved by the committee, H.R. 3 would authorize $1.75 billion in direct spending. Funds would be allocated to expand Head Start to provide full-day care for children of working parents; develop school-based before- and after-school care; help states improve day care programs for infants, toddlers, and children under 13; and help states coordinate child care services. The bill does not set minimum federal health and safety standards, and states would have considerable leeway in meeting the bill's requirement to upgrade health and safety, licensing, and training standards.

FOUR Gender Equality and Employment Policy

1. A more extended discussion of these issues appears in Rhode, 1989a and 1989b.
2. For example, recent data suggest that males and females with comparable qualifications holding comparable jobs do not have different turnover rates in most job contexts (Waite and Berryman, 1985; Reskin and Hartmann, 1986).
3. The most important have been the Equal Pay Act of 1963, 29 U.S.C. Section 206 (banning sex discrimination in wages); Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (prohibiting sex discrimination in hiring, advancement, termination, and related terms of employment), and Executive Order 11375 (requiring federal contractors to establish affirmative action programs for women).
4. For example, disputes often arise about how to define the relevant applicant pool, which individuals best satisfy given job requirements, and what counts as sufficient good-faith efforts to meet goals and timetables (see Bartholet, 1982).

Women in Business

1. Because partnerships and subchapter S corporations typically have more than one owner, the analyses discussed in this chapter are restricted to sole proprietorships. Researchers and policymakers do not agree on how to identify "the" owner in a multiple owner firm. The reader interested in comparing all women-owned sole proprietorships with all women-owned partnerships or corporations may wish to consult U.S. Bureau of the Census, August 1987. In addition, the 1982 Charac-

teristics of Business Owners contains much more information than can be discussed in this brief chapter. The reader is encouraged to contact the original source for other information that might be of interest.

2. Other factors than those discussed in this chapter also determine performance; these include choice of goods or services to produce or provide, geographic location of the business, the owner's or firm's "social" capital, the firm's financial capital, and product markets.
3. The CBO survey also obtained information on profits, which may also be used to measure performance. However, there are two reasons why receipts may be a better measure of performance than profits. First, profits are viewed as somewhat discretionary in small owner-managed firms (for example, an owner can elect to take his or her compensation as salary rather than as profits). Second, there is some question about the reliability of CBO profit data (Ando, 1988b).

The Emergence and Growth of Women's Studies Programs

1. An earlier version of this paper appeared in *Thought and Action*, the National Education Association Higher Education Journal, Volume IV, Fall 1988.

References

Editor's Note

Bergmann, Barbara R. *The Economic Emergence of Women*. New York: Basic Books, 1986.

Older Women's League (OWL). *Failing America's Caregivers: A Status Report on Women Who Care*. Washington, D.C.: OWL, 1989.

Whited, Charles. "It's Still Tough to Be a Woman in Work World." *Miami Herald*, February 9, 1989.

ONE A Portrait of African American Families in the United States

Ahmed, Feroz. *Infant Mortality in Washington, D.C.: A Study of Risk Factors Among Black Residents*. Washington, D.C.: Institute for Urban Affairs and Research, 1987.

Billingsly, Andrew. *Black Families in White America*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1968.

Califano, Joseph. "Tough Talk for Democrats." *New York Times Magazine*, January 8, 1989.

Cross, William. "Black Family and Black Identity: A Literature Review." *Western Journal of Black Studies* 2 (Summer, 1978): 111-124.

Dash, Leon. *When Children Want Children, The Urban Crisis of Teenage Childbearing*. New York: William Morrow and Company, 1989.

Edelman, Marian W. *Families in Peril, An Agenda for Social Change*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1987.

Farley, Reynolds and Walter Allen. *The Color Line and the Quality of Life in America*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1987.

Frazier, E. Franklin. *The Negro Family in the United States*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.

Furstenberg, Frank. "The Social Consequences of Teen Parenthood." In *Teen Sexuality, Pregnancy, and Childbearing*, edited by F. Furstenberg, R. Lincoln, and J. Menken. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1981.

Glick, Paul. "Demographic Pictures of Black Families." In *Black Families*, 2nd edition, edited by Harriette McAdoo. Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications, 1988.

Hall, Robert and Carol Stack. *Holding on to the Land and the Lord: Kinship, Ritual, Land Tenure, and Social Policy in the Rural South*. Athens, Georgia: University of Georgia Press, 1982.

Harrison, Algea. "The Black Family's Socializing Environment: Self-Esteem and Ethnic Attitudes Among Black Children." In *Black Children: Social, Educational, and Parental Environments*, edited by Harriette McAdoo. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, 1985.

Hill, Robert. *The Strengths of Black Families*. New York: Emerson-Hall, 1971.

Johnson, Julie. "Blacks and Whites are Found [World Apart]." *New York Times*, January 12, 1989a.

———. "Schools Faulted on Educating Blacks." *New York Times*, May 24, 1989b.

Kunjufu, Jawanza. *Countering the Conspiracy to Destroy Black Boys*. Vol. II. Chicago: African-American Images, 1986.

McAdoo, Harriette. "The Development of Self Concept and Race Attitudes of Young Black Children Over Time." In *Third Conference on Empirical Research in Black Psychology*, edited by W.E. Cross. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, 1977.

———. "Factors Related to the Stability of Upwardly Mobile Black Families." *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 40 (November 1978): 761-776.

———. "Family Changes Within African-American Families." *Smith College School for Social Work Journal* 5 (Spring 1987): 19-22.

———. "Transgenerational Patterns of Upward Mobility in African American Families." In *Black Families*, 2nd edition, edited by Harriette McAdoo. Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications, 1988.

Nash, Margaret and Margaret Dunkle. *The Need for a Warming Trend: A Survey of the School Climate for Pregnant and Parenting Teens*. Washington, D.C.: Equality Center, 1989.

Schmidt, William. "Study Links Male Employment and Single Mothers in Chicago." *New York Times*, January 16, 1989.

U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 410. *Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1985*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, November 1986.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 423. *Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1987*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, April 1988.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 424. *Household and Family Characteristics: March 1987*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, May 1988.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 429. *School Enrollment—Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1986*.

Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, August 1988a.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-60, No. 161. *Money Income and Poverty Status in the United States: 1987*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, August 1988b.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 433. *Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1988*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1989a.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-25, No. 1018. *Projections of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1988 to 2080*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1989b.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-60, No. 162. *Money Income of Households, Families, and Persons in the United States: 1987*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, February 1989.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-23, No. 154. *Child Support and Alimony: 1985*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, March 1989.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 436. *Fertility of American Women*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, May 1989.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Employment and Earnings*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1989.

Vobejda, Barbara. "Black Males Increasingly Rare in College." *Washington Post*, January 16, 1989.

Weiss, Kenneth. "Migration By Blacks From the South Turns Around." *New York Times*, June 11, 1989.

Willie, Charles. "The Black Family: Striving Toward Freedom." In *The State of Black America 1988*, edited by Janet Deward. New York: National Urban League, Inc., 1988a.

———. *A New Look at Black Families*, 3rd edition. Dix Hills, New York: General Hall, 1988b.

Wilson, William. "Social Policy and Minority Groups: What Might Have Been and What Might We See in the Future?" In *Divided Opportunities: Minorities, Poverty, and Social Policy*, edited by Gary Sandefur and Marta Tienda. New York: Plenum Press, 1988.

TWO **Women and Affordable Housing**

Leonard, Paul A., Cushing N. Dolbeare, and Edward B. Lazere. *A Place to Call Home: The Crisis in Housing for the Poor*. Washington, D.C.: Center on Budget and Policy Priorities and Low Income Housing Information Service, 1989.

National Low Income Housing Coalition, Women and Housing Task

Force. "Memorandum to the Transition and the Incoming Administration." Washington, D.C.: National Low Income Housing Coalition, 1988.

National Low Income Housing Preservation Commission. *Preventing the Disappearance of Low Income Housing*. Washington, D.C.: National Low Income Housing Preservation Commission, 1988.

U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports. Series P-60, No. 155. *Receipt of Selected Noncash Benefits: 1985*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1987.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-60, No. 158. *Poverty in the United States 1985*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, October 1987.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS). "Autumn 1981 Urban Family Budgets and Comparative Indexes for Selected Urban Areas." Press release USDL 82-129. Washington, D.C.: BLS, 1982.

U.S. Congress. Joint Committee on Taxation. *Estimates of Federal Tax Expenditures for Fiscal Years 1986-1990*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1985.

U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development and U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Housing Reports, H-150-85. *American Housing Survey for the United States in 1985*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, December 1988.

U.S. General Accounting Office (GAO). *Rental Housing: Potential Reduction in the Privately Owned and Federally Assisted Inventory*. GAO/RCED-86-176FS. Washington, D.C.: GAO, 1986.

———. *Rental Housing: Potential Reduction in the Section 8 Existing and Voucher Inventory*. GAO/RCED-87-20FS. Washington, D.C.: GAO, 1987.

———. *Rural Rental Housing: Impact of Section 515 Loan Prepayments on Tenants and Housing Availability*. GAO/RCED-88-15BR. Washington, D.C.: GAO, 1988.

THREE **Child Care in the United States**

Berrueta-Clement, John R., Laurence J. Schweinhart, W. Steven Barnett, Ann S. Epstein, and David P. Weikart. *Changed Lives: The Effects of the Perry Preschool Program on Youth Through Age 19*. Ypsilante, Michigan: High/Scope Press, 1984.

Besharov, Douglas J. and Paul N. Tramontozzi. "Child Care Subsidies: Mostly for the Middle Class." *Washington Post*, May 2, 1988.

Blank, Helen, Amy Wilkins, and Margaret Crawley. *State Child Care Fact Book 1987*. Washington, D.C.: Children's Defense Fund, 1987.

Blau, D.M. and P.K. Robins. "Child Care and Family Labor Supply." *The Review of Economics and Statistics* 70 (1988): 374-381.

Bureau of National Affairs (BNA). *Latchkey Children: A Guide for Employers*. Washington, D.C.: BNA, 1984.

Burud, Sandra L., Pamela R. Aschbacher, and Jacqueline McCroskly. *Employer-Supported Child Care: Investing in Human Resources*. Boston: Auburn House, 1984.

Children's Defense Fund. *Child Care: The Time Is Now*. Washington, D.C.: Children's Defense Fund, 1987.

Committee on Economic Development. *Children in Need: Investment and Strategies for the Educationally Disadvantaged*. New York: Committee for Economic Development, 1987.

Commonwealth of Massachusetts. *Caring for Our Common Wealth: The Economics of Child Care in Massachusetts*. Boston: Commonwealth of Massachusetts Office for Children, 1988.

Family Impact Seminar. *The Child Care Market: Supply, Demand, Price, and Expenditures*. Washington, D.C.: Family Impact Seminar, January 1989.

Friedman, Dana. "Estimates From the Conference Board and Other National Monitors of Employer-Supported Child Care." Unpublished memo. New York: The Conference Board, 1988.

Galinsky, Ellen. *Business Competitive Policies and Family Life: The Promise and Potential Pitfalls of Emerging Trends*, in press.

Galinsky, Ellen and Dana Friedman. *Investing in Quality Child Care: A Report for AT&T*. New York: Bank Street College of Education, November 1986.

Goodman, Irene and Joan Brady. *The Challenge of Coordination: Head Start's Relationship to State Funded Preschool Initiatives*. Newton, Massachusetts: Education Development Center, Inc., May 1988.

Gray, W., L. Kafalas, and D. Knight. *An Evaluation of the Massachusetts Voucher Day Care*. Boston: Commonwealth of Massachusetts Department of Social Services, 1984.

Harris, Louis and Associates, Inc. *The Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher 1987: Strengthening Links Between Home and School*. New York: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1987.

Hartmann, Heidi and Diana M. Pearce. *High Skill and Low Pay: The Economics of Child Care Work*. Executive summary. Washington, D.C.: Institute for Women's Policy Research, February 1989.

Hofferth, Sandra L. and Deborah A. Phillips. "Child Care in the United States, 1970 to 1995." *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 49 (August 1987): 559-571.

Honig, L., D. Wittmer, R. Lally, and P. Magione. *An Early Intervention Program 10 Years Later: What Happened to High Risk Infants Who Received Quality Early Childhood Education—The Syracuse University Study*. Paper presented at the National Association for the Education of Young Children Conference, Washington, D.C., November 1986.

Kahn, Alfred J. and Sheila B. Kamerman. *Child Care: Facing the Hard Choices*. Dover, Massachusetts: Auburn House, 1987.

Lazar, Irving and the Consortium on Developmental Continuity. *The Persistence of Preschool Effects*. Denver, Colorado: Education Commission of the States, 1977.

Lindsey, Laurence B. "Better Child Care, Cheaper." *Wall Street Journal*, July 5, 1988.

Marx, Fern. "Child Care." In *Services to Young Families: Program Review and Policy Recommendations*, edited by H. McAdoo and T.M.J. Parkam. Washington, D.C.: American Public Welfare Association, 1985.

Marx, Fern and Michelle Seligson. *The Public School Early Childhood Study: The State Survey*. New York: Bank Street College of Education, 1988.

Mitchell, Anne. *The Public School Early Childhood Study: The District Survey*. New York: Bank Street College of Education, 1988.

National Association of Elementary School Principals. "Child Care Survey." Press release. Alexandria, Virginia: National Association of Elementary School Principals, January 28, 1988.

National Governor's Association. *Focus on the First 60 Months: Proceedings of the National Early Childhood Conference*. Washington, D.C.: National Governor's Association, 1986.

O'Connor, Alice. "The Family Support Bill: Living Up to Its Name?" *Child Care Action News* 5 (November-December 1988).

Pekow, Charles. "Legislative Failure: Why ABC Didn't Pass in 1988." *Special Report* 17. Washington, D.C.: Day Care Information Service, December 1988.

Phillips, Deborah A. and Carollee Howes. "Indicators of Quality Child Care: Review of the Research" in *Quality in Child Care: What Does the Research Tell Us?* edited by Deborah A. Phillips. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1987.

Porter, Toni B. *Lives on Hold*. New York: Child Care, Inc., 1988.

Presser, Harriet. "Shift Work and Child Care Among Young Dual Earner American Parents." *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 50 (February 1988): 133-149.

Rector, Robert. "The American Family and Day Care." *Issue Bulletin* 138. Washington, D.C.: The Heritage Foundation, April 6, 1988.

Samuelson, Robert J. "The Debate Over Day Care." *Newsweek*, June 27, 1988, 45.

Seligson, Michelle. "Child Care for the School-Age Child." *Phi Delta Kappan* 67 (May 1986): 20-23.

U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports. Series P-23, No. 129. *Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers: June 1982*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1983.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-70, No. 9. *Who's Minding the Kids? Child Care Arrangements: Winter 1984-85*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, May 1987.

FOUR **Gender Equality and Employment Policy**

Abramson, Jill and Barbara Franklin. *Where Are They Now: The Women of Harvard Law*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1986.

Aisenberg, Nadya and Mona Harrington. *Women of Academe*. Amherst, Massachusetts: University of Massachusetts Press, 1988.

American Bar Association (ABA). Commission on Women in the Professions. *Report to the House of Delegates*. Chicago: ABA, 1988.

Bartholet, Elizabeth. "Application of Title VII to Jobs in High Places." *Harvard Law Review* 95 (March 1982): 947-1027.

Becker, Gary. *The Economics of Discrimination*, 2nd edition. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1971.

———. *Human Capital*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1975.

Becker, Mary E. "Prince Charming: Abstract Equality." *Supreme Court Review*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1987, 201-247.

Beller, Andrea H. "Occupational Segregation and the Earnings Gap." In *Comparable Worth: Issue for the 80's*. Vol. 1. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1984.

Bernard, Jessie. "Sex Difference: An Overview." In *Beyond Sex-Role Stereotypes*, edited by Alexandra Kaplan and Joan Bean. Boston: Little, Brown, 1976.

Bielby, William T. and James N. Baron. "A Woman's Place is With Other Women: Sex Segregation Within Organizations." In *Sex Segregation in the Workplace: Trends, Explanations, Remedies*, edited by Barbara F. Reskin. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1984.

Blau, Francine D. "Occupational Segregation and Labor Market Discrimination." In *Sex Segregation in the Workplace: Trends. Explanations, Remedies*, edited by Barbara F. Reskin. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1984.

Block, Walter E. and Michael A. Walker. *Discrimination, Affirmative Action, and Equal Opportunity: An Economic and Social Perspective*. Vancouver: The Fraser Institute, 1982.

Caribbean Marine Services v. Baldridge, 844 F.2d 668 (9th Cir. 1988).

Citizens' Commission on Civil Rights. *Affirmative Action: To Open the Doors of Job Opportunity, A Policy of Fairness and Compassion That Has Worked*. Washington, D.C.: Citizens' Commission on Civil Rights, 1984.

Clauss, Carin Anne. "Comparable Worth: The Theory, Its Legal Foundation, and the Feasibility of Implementation." *Journal of Law Reform* 20 (Fall 1986): 7-97.

Duncan, Gregory. *Years of Poverty, Years of Plenty*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, 1984.

Employee Benefit Research Institute (EBRI). *Issue Brief* 85 (December 1988): 15.

Epstein, Cynthia Fuchs. *Deceptive Distinction: Sex, Gender, and the Social Order*. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1988.

Fallon, Richard H. "To Each According to His Ability; From None According to His Race: The Concept of Merit in the Law of Antidiscrimination." *Boston Law Review* 60 (November 1980): 815-877.

Fernandez, John. *Racism and Sexism in Corporate Life*. Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 1981.

Fishel, Daniel and Edward P. Lazear. "Comparable Worth and Discrimination in Labor Markets." *University of Chicago Law Review* 53 (Summer 1986): 891-952.

Gold, Michael Evan. *A Dialogue on Comparable Worth*. Ithaca, New York: ILR Press, 1983.

Goldman, Alan H. *Justice and Reverse Discrimination*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1979.

Gutek, Barbara (editor). *Sex Role Stereotyping and Affirmative Action Policy*. Los Angeles: Institute of Industrial Relations, 1982.

Hartmann, Heidi I. "Comparable Worth and Women's Economic Independence." In *Ingredients for Women's Employment Policy*, edited by Christine Bose and Glenna Spitze. Albany, New York: State University of New York Press, 1987.

Hartmann, Heidi I., Patricia A. Roos, and Donald J. Treiman. "An Agenda for Basic Research on Comparable Worth." In *Comparable Worth: New Directions for Research*, edited by Heidi I. Hartmann. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1985.

Howe, Louise Kapp. *Pink Collar Workers*. New York: G.P. Putnam's Sons, 1977.

Kamerman, Sheila B. and Alfred J. Kahn. *The Responsive Workplace*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1987.

Kanter, Rosabeth Moss. *Men and Women of the Corporation*. New York: Basic Books, 1977.

Kaufman, Debra R. and Barbara L. Richardson. *Achievement and Women: Challenging the Assumptions*. New York: The Free Press, 1982.

Killingsworth, Mark R. "The Economics of Comparable Worth: Analytic, Empirical, and Policy Questions." In *Comparable Worth: New Directions for Research*, edited by Heidi I. Hartmann. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1985.

Kirp, David L., Marlene Strong, and Mark G. Yudof. *Gender Justice*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1985.

Larwood, Laurie and Marion Wood. *Women in Management*. Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 1977.

Lauter, David. "How to Factor the Value of Workers' Skills." *National Law Journal* January 2, 1984: 24.

Lawrence, Charles R. "The Id, the Ego, and Equal Protection: Reckoning with Unconscious Racism." *Stanford Law Review* 39 (1987): 317-388.

Lott, Bernice. "The Devaluation of Women's Competence." *Journal of Social Issues* 41 (Winter 1985): 43-60.

McBroom, Patricia. *The Third Sex*. New York: William Morrow, 1986.

MacKinnon, Catharine. *Sexual Harassment of Working Women: A Case of Sex Discrimination*. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1979.

Marano, Cynthia. Prepared statement for the Subcommittee on Employment Opportunities of the Committee on Education and Labor, U.S. House of Representatives, 2d Session. *Hearing on Women in the Workforce: Supreme Court Issues*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1986.

Marini, Margaret Mooney and Mary C. Brinton. "Sex Typing in Occupational Socialization." In *Sex Segregation in the Workplace: Trends, Explanations, Remedies*, edited by Barbara F. Reskin. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1984.

Matthaei, Julie A. *An Economic History of Women in America*. New York: Shocken, 1982.

Mead, Margaret. *Male and Female: A Study of the Sexes in a Changing World*. New York: William Morrow, 1968.

Mednick, Martha T. "Women and the Psychology of Achievement: Implications for Personal and Social Change." In *Women in the Work Force*, edited by H. John Bernadin. New York: Praeger, 1982.

Menges, Robert J. and William H. Exum. "Barriers to the Progress of Women and Minority Faculty." *Journal of Higher Education* 54 (March/April 1983): 123-144.

Meritor Savings Bank FSB v. Vinson, 477 U.S. 57 (1986).

Mirande, Alfredo and Evangelina Enriquez. *La Chicana*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1979.

Muller v. Oregon, 208 U.S. 412, 421 (1908).

National Committee on Pay Equity. *Pay Equity: An Issues of Race, Ethnicity, and Sex*. Washington, D.C.: National Committee on Pay Equity, 1987.

———. *Briefing on the Wage Gap*. Washington, D.C.: National Committee on Pay Equity, 1989.

New York State Club Association v. City of New York, 108 S. Ct. 2225 (1988).

Remick, Helen and Ronnie Steinberg. "Technical Possibilities and Political Realities: Concluding Remarks." In *Comparable Worth and Wage Discrimination*, edited by Helen Remick. Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1984.

Reskin, Barbara F. and Heidi I. Hartmann. *Women's Work, Men's Work: Sex Segregation on the Job*. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1986.

Rhode, Deborah L. "Association and Assimilation." *Northwestern Law Review* 1 (Fall 1986): 106-145.

———. "Perspectives on Professional Women." *Stanford Law Review* 40 (May 1988): 1163-1207.

———. *Justice and Gender*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1989a.

———. "Occupational Inequality." *Duke University Law Journal* (forthcoming, 1989b).

Roberts v. United States Jaycees, 468 U.S. 628 (1984).

Roos, Patricia A. *Gender and Work: A Comparative Analysis of Industrial Societies*. Albany, New York: State University of New York Press, 1985.

Roos, Patricia A. and Barbara Reskin. "Institutional Factors Contributing to Sex Segregation in the Workplace." In *Sex Segregation in the Workplace: Trends. Explanations, Remedies*, edited by Barbara F. Reskin. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1984.

Savage, David. "San Jose's Equal Pay Plan Survives." *Los Angeles Times*, September 12, 1983.

Scales-Trent, Judy. "Comparable Worth: Is This a Theory for Black Workers?" *Women's Rights Law Reporter* 8 (Winter 1984): 51-58.

Shepela, Sharon Toffey and Ann T. Viviano. "Some Psychological Factors Affecting Sex Discrimination and Wages." In *Comparable Worth and Wage Discrimination*, edited by Helen Remick. Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1984.

Steinberg, Ronnie J. "Identifying Wage Discrimination and Implementing Pay Equity Adjustments." In *Comparable Worth: Issue for the 80's*. Vol. 1. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1984.

Steinberg, Ronnie J. and Lois Haignere. "Equitable Compensation: Methodological Criteria for Comparable Worth." In *Ingredients for Women's Employment Policy*, edited by Christine Bose and Glenna Spitze. Albany, New York: State University of New York Press, 1987.

Strober, Myra H. and Sanford N. Dornbush. "Public Policy Alternatives." In *Feminism, Children, and the New Families*, edited by Sanford N. Dornbush and Myra H. Strober. New York: Guilford Press, 1988.

Treiman, Donald J. and Heidi I. Hartmann. *Women, Work and Wages: Equal Pay for Jobs of Equal Value*. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1981.

U.S. Bureau of the Census. *Census of Population, 1960, Volume One, Characteristics of the Population: U.S. Summary*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Employment and Earnings*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1968.

Waite, Linda J. and Sue E. Berryman. *Women in Non-Traditional Occupations: Choice and Turnover*. Santa Monica, California: Rand, 1985.

Walshok, Mary L. *Blue Collar Women: Pioneers on the Male Frontier*. Garden City, New York: Anchor, 1981.

Weiler, Paul. "The Wages of Sex: Limits of Comparable Worth." *Harvard Law Review* 99 (June 1986): 1728-1807.

Zigler, Edward and Meryl Frank. *The Parental Leave Crisis: Toward a National Policy*. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1988.

Women in Brief

Alloway, Lawrence. "Women's Art in the '70s." *Art in America*. (May/June 1976): 64-72.

American Medical Association (AMA). *In the Marketplace: Work Patterns, Practice Characteristics and Incomes of Women Physicians*. Chicago: AMA, 1987.

Ando, Faith H. "Capital Issues and the Minority-Owned Business." *The Review of Black Political Economy* 16 (Spring 1988a): 77-109.

———. *Minorities, Women, Veterans and the 1982 Characteristics of Business Owners Survey: A Preliminary Analysis*. Report to the U.S. Small Business Administration and the U.S. Minority Business Development Agency, SBA 3026-OA-88. Haverford, Pennsylvania: Faith Ando & Associates, 1988b.

Arnold, Robert, Steven C. Martin, and Ruth M. Parker. "Taking Care of Patients: Does It Matter When the Doctor Is a Woman?" *Western Journal of Medicine* 149 (1988): 729-733.

Association of American Medical Colleges (AAMC). *Medical School Admission Requirements, 1990-91*. Washington, D.C.: AAMC, 1989.

Barrett, Nancy S. "Women and the Economy." In *The American Woman 1987-88: A Report in Depth*, edited by Sara E. Rix. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1987.

Behr, Shulamith. *Women Expressionists*. New York: Rizzoli, 1988.

Bell, Susan G. and Karen M. Offen (editors). *Women, the Family, and Freedom: The Debate in Documents.* Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1983.

Belous, Richard S. "How Firms Adjust to the Shift Toward Contingent Workers." *Monthly Labor Review* 112 (March 1989): 7-12.

Benham, Lee. "Benefits of Women's Education Within Marriage." *Journal of Political Economy* 82, 2, part II (March/April 1974): S57-S71.

Bianchi, Suzanne M. and Daphne Spain. *American Women in Transition*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1986.

Bickel, Janet. "Women in Medical Education: A Status Report." *The New England Journal of Medicine* 319 (December 15, 1988): 1579-1584.

Bielby, William T. and Denise D. Bielby. *The 1989 Hollywood Writers' Report: Unequal Access, Unequal Pay*. West Hollywood, California: Writers Guild of America, West, 1989.

Bonilla-Santiago, Gloria. *Hispanic Women in New Jersey: A Survey of Women Raising Families Alone*. Camden, New Jersey: Hispanic Women's Task Force of New Jersey, Rutgers University, 1988.

Bowman, Marjorie A. and Marcie Lynn Gross. "Overview of Research on Women in Medicine—Issues for Public Policymakers." *Public Health Reports* 101 (May/June 1986): 513-521.

Broude, Norma. "Degas's Misogyny." *Art Bulletin* 59 (March 1977): 95-107.

Bureau of National Affairs (BNA). *The Changing Workplace: New Directions in Staffing and Scheduling*. Washington, D.C.: BNA, 1986.

Calkins, E., Louise M. Arnold, and T. Lee Willoughby. "Gender Differences in Predictors of Performance in Medical Training." *Journal of Medical Education* 62 (August 1987): 682-685.

Camp, Sharon L. (editor). *Country Rankings of the Status of Women: Poor, Powerless, and Pregnant*. Washington, D.C.: Population Crisis Committee, 1988.

Castro, Janice. "Women Entrepreneurs: She Calls All the Shots." *Time*, July 4, 1988, 54-57.

Chadwick, Whitney. *Women Artists in the Surrealist Movement*. Boston: Little, Brown, 1985.

Chen, Gavin, Norman Hurwitz, Bruce Kirchhoff, and Richard Stevens. *Minority Business Enterprise Today: Problems and Their Causes*. NTIS Report Number PB-82-194986. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Department of Commerce, Minority Business Development Agency, January 1982.

Chiti, Judith. "Review of *Reflections: Women in Their Own Image*." *Woman's Art Journal* 7 (Spring/Summer 1986): 46-47.

Christensen, Kathleen. Testimony Before the Employment and Housing Subcommittee, Committee on Government Operations, U.S. House of Representatives, May 19, 1988.

Clark, J. and P. P. Rieker. "Gender Differences in Relationships and Stress of Medical and Law Students." *Journal of Medical Education* 61 (January 1986): 32-40.

Curti, Merle. *The American Peace Crusade 1815-1860*. Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press, 1929.

———. *Peace or War: The American Struggle 1636-1936*. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1936.

Davidson, Nicholas. *The Failure of Feminism*. Buffalo, New York: Prometheus Books, 1988.

DeBenedetti, Charles. *The Peace Reform in American History*. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Press, 1980.

Degen, Marie Louise. *The History of the Woman's Peace Party*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1939.

Dieppa, Ismael and Miguel Montiel. "Hispanic Families: An Exploration." In *Hispanic Families*, edited by Jan Curren. Washington, D.C.: National Coalition of Hispanic Mental Health and Humans Services Organizations, 1978.

Downie, Susanna (editor). *Decade of Achievement: 1977-1987—A Report of a Survey Based on the National Plan of Action for Women*. Beaver Dam, Wisconsin: National Women's Conference Committee, 1988.

Duncan, Carol. "Happy Mothers and Other New Ideas in French Art." *Art Bulletin* 55 (December 1973): 570-583.

Elshtain, Jean Bethke. "Women, War and Feminism." *Nation* 230 (June 14, 1980): 705-722.

Emmons, David W. "Changing Dimensions of Practice Arrangements." *Medical Care Review* 45 (Spring 1988): 101-128.

Fahlman, Betsy. "Reviews." *Woman's Art Journal* 8 (Fall 1987/Winter 1988): 55-59.

Fine, Elsa Honig. *Women and Art: A History of Women Painters and Sculptors from the Renaissance to the 20th Century*. Montclair/London: Allenheld and Schram/Prior, 1978.

Fraser, Arvonne. *U.N. Decade for Women: Documents and Dialogue*. Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press, 1987.

Galey, Margaret E. "Promoting Nondiscrimination Against Women: The U.N. Commission on the Status of Women." *International Studies Quarterly* 23 (June 1979): 273-302.

Glenn, Evelyn Nakano. *Issei, Nisei, War Bride: Three Generations of Japanese American Women in Domestic Service*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1986.

Gouma-Peterson, Thalia and Patricia Mathews. "The Feminist Critique of Art History." *Art Bulletin* 69 (September 1987): 326-357.

Grant, Linda. "The Gender Climate of Medical School: Perspectives of Women and Men Students." *Journal of the American Medical Women's Association* 43 (July/August 1988): 109-119.

Grefe, Mary. Testimony Before the 32nd Session of the U.N. Commission on the Status of Women, Vienna, March 18, 1988.

Heller, Nancy. *Women Artists: An Illustrated History*. New York: Abberville Press, 1987.

Hobbs, Robert. "Sally Michel: The Other Avery." *Woman's Art Journal* 8 (Fall 1987/Winter 1988): 3-14.

Institute for Defense and Disarmament Studies. *American Peace Directory*, edited by Melinda Fine and Peter Stevens. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Ballinger Publishing, 1984.

———. *Peace Resource Book*, edited by Carl Conetta. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Ballinger Publishing, 1988.

International Congress of Women. *International Congress of Women, The Hague Report*. Amsterdam: N.V. Concordia, 1915.

———. *Report of the International Congress of Women, Zurich, 1918*. Geneva: International Congress of Women, 1918.

Katz, Barry. "The Women of Futurism." *Woman's Art Journal* 7 (Fall 1986/Winter 1987): 3-13.

Kim, Bok-Lim C., Amy I. Okamura, Naomi Ozawa, and Virginia Forrest. *Women in Shadows. A Handbook for Service Providers Working with Asian Wives of U.S. Military Personnel*. LaJolla, California: National Committee Concerned with Asian Wives of U.S. Servicemen, 1981.

Kim, Elaine with Janice Otani. *With Silk Wings: Asian American Women at Work*. Oakland, California: Asian Women United of California, 1983.

Lauter, Paul. *Reconstructing American Literature*. Old Westbury, New York: The Feminist Press, 1983.

Lerner, Gerda. *Teaching Women's History*. Washington, D.C.: American Historical Association, 1981.

Levitan, Sar A. and Elizabeth A. Conway. "Part-Timers: Living on Half-Rations." *Challenge* 31 (May/June 1988): 8-16.

Lippard, Lucy. "Sweeping Changes: The Contributions of Feminism to the Art of the 1970s." *College Art Journal* 40 (Fall/Winter 1980): 362-365.

Lloyd, C. and N. Gartrell. "Sex Differences in Medical Student Mental Health." *American Journal of Psychiatry* 138 (October 1981): 1346-1351.

Lorber, Judith. *Women Physicians: Career, Status and Power*. New York: Tavistock, 1984.

Lott, Juanita (editor). *Pan Asian Women: A Vital Force*. Washington, D.C.: Organization of Pan Asian American Women, 1985.

Lott, Juanita and Canta Pian. *Beyond Stereotypes and Statistics: Emergence of Asian and Pacific American Women*. Hyattsville, Maryland: Council Press, 1979.

Loughery, John. "Mrs. Holladay and the Guerrilla Girls." *Arts Magazine* 62 (October 1987): 61-65.

Mark, Diane Mei Lin and Ginger Chih. *A Place Called Chinese America*. Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Company, 1982.

Miller, Jean Baker. *Toward a New Psychology of Women.* Boston: Beacon Press, 1976.

Mincer, Jacob and Solomon Polachek. "Family Investments in Human Capital: Earnings of Women." *Journal of Political Economy* 82, 2, part II (March/April 1974): S76-S108.

Munsterberg, Hugo. *A History of Women Artists*. New York: C.N. Potter Crown, 1975.

Natera, Maria. *Hispana Perspective.* Los Angeles: California State Department of Education, Career-Vocational Preparation Division, 1988.

National Council of La Raza. *Hispanics in the Work Force: Hispanic Women Part II*. Washington, D.C.: Policy Analysis Center, 1988.

Nemser, Cindy. *Art Talk: Conversations With 12 Artists*. New York: Scribner, 1975.

Nochlin, Linda. "Why Have There Been No Great Women Artists?" *Art News* 69 (January 1971): 22-39.

Owen, John D. "Why Part-Time Workers Tend to be in Low-Wage Jobs." *Monthly Labor Review* 101 (June 1978): 11-14.

Petersen, Karen and J.J. Wilson. *Women Artists: Recognition and Reappraisal*. New York: Harper Colophon, 1976.

Plauche, Warren C. and Joseph M. Miller, Jr. "Performances of Female Medical Students in an Obstetrics and Gynecology Clerkship." *Journal of Medical Education* 61 (April 1986): 323-325.

Preven, David W., Elizabeth Krajic Kachur, Robin B. Kupfer, and Jane A. Waters. "Interviewing Skills of First-Year Medical Students." *Journal of Medical Education* 61 (October 1986): 842-844.

Riley, John G. "Testing the Educational Screening Hypothesis." *Journal of Political Economy* 87, 5, part II (October 1979): S227-S252.

Rizzo-Harvi, Renata. "Women's Work." *Nuclear Times* (July/August 1987): 19-23.

Rom, Christine C. "One View: *The Feminist Art Journal*." *Woman's Art Journal* 2 (Fall 1981/Winter 1982): 19-24.

Sandefur, Gary D. and Arthur Sakamoto. "American Indian Household Structure and Income." *Demography* 25 (February 1988): 71-80.

Seifert, Carolyn. "Images of Domestic Madness in the Art and Poetry of American Women." *Woman's Art Journal* 1 (Fall 1980/Winter 1981): 1-6.

Shefer, Elaine. "Woman's Mission." *Woman's Art Journal* 7 (Spring/Summer 1986): 8-12.

Sherman, Julia and Evelyn Torton Beck (editors). *The Prism of Sex*. Madison, Wisconsin: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1981.

Sparrow, W.S. *Women Painters of the World*. London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1905.

Spence, Michael A. *Market Signalling: Information Transfer in Hiring and Related Screening Processes*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1974.

Spender, Dale (editor). *Men's Studies Modified*. Oxford, England: Pergamon Press, 1981.

Steinson, Barbara J. *American Women's Activism During World War I*. New York: Garland Publishing, 1982.

Stiglitz, Joseph E. "The Theory of 'Screening,' Education, and the Distribution of Income." *American Economic Review* 65 (June 1975): 283-300.

Stinson, John F., Jr. "Moonlighting by Women Jumped to Record High." *Monthly Labor Review* 109 (November 1986): 22-25.

Swerdlow, Amy. "Women's Peace Festival." *Women's Studies Quarterly* 12 (Summer 1984): 29.

Tinker, Irene (editor). *Women in Washington: Advocates for Public Policy*. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, 1983.

Tinker, Irene and Michele Bo Bramsen. *Women and World Development*. Washington, D.C.: Overseas Development Council, 1976.

Tudor, Cynthia and Diane Lindley. *Trends in Medical School Applicants and Matriculants, 1978-1987*. Washington, D.C.: Association of American Medical Colleges, 1988.

Tufts, Eleanor. *Our Hidden Heritage: Five Centuries of Women Artists*. New York: Paddington Press, 1974.

United Nations. *The Forward-Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women*. New York: United Nations, 1985.

U.S. Bureau of the Census. PC80-1-C1. *General Social and Economic Characteristics: United States Summary*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, December 1983a.

———. *Statistical Abstract of the United States 1984*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, December 1983b.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 390. *Educational Attainment in the United States: March 1981 and 1980*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, August 1984.

———. WB82-1. *1982 Economic Censuses: Women Owned Businesses*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, April 1986.

———. 82CBO-1. *1982 Characteristics of Business Owners*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, August 1987.

———. PC80-2-1E. *Asian and Pacific Islander Population in the United States: 1980*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1988.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 427. *Fertility of American Women: June 1987*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, May 1988.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 428. *Educational*

Attainment in the United States: March 1987 and 1986. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, August 1988a.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 431. *The Hispanic Population in the United States: March 1988*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, August 1988b.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-60, No. 161. *Money Income and Poverty Status in the United States: 1987*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, August 1988c.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Employment and Earnings*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1988 and January 1989.

U.S. Congress. House. Committee on Small Business. 100th Congress, 2d Session. *New Economic Realities: The Rise of the Woman Entrepreneur*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1988.

Valdivieso, Rafael and Cary Davis. *U.S. Hispanics: Challenging Issues for the 1990s*. Washington, D.C.: Population Reference Bureau, 1988.

Wallis, Lila A., H. Gilder, and H. Thaler. "Advancement of Men and Women in Medical Academia." *Journal of the American Medical Association* 246 (November 20, 1981): 2350-2353.

Weinberg, Ethel and James F. Rooney. "The Academic Performance of Women Students in Medical School." *Journal of Medical Education* 48 (March 1973): 240-247.

Whittick, Arnold. *Woman Into Citizen*. Santa Barbara, California: ABC-Clio, 1979.

Williams, Harry B. "What Temporary Workers Earn: Findings From a New BLS Survey." *Monthly Labor Review* 112 (March 1989): 3-6.

Young, Nancy Foon and Judy R. Parish (editors). *Montage: An Ethnic History of Women in Hawaii*. Honolulu: State Commission on the Status of Women, 1977.

American Women Today: A Statistical Portrait

Catalyst. "Historical Data on the Number of Women Directors on Fortune Boards During the Last 17 Years" (fact sheet). New York: Catalyst, 1986.

Center for the American Woman and Politics (CAWP). *Women Candidates for Congress and Statewide Offices: 1988 Election Results*. New Brunswick, New Jersey: CAWP, 1988.

Hubbard, Lisa, with the assistance of Cynthia Coleman. *National Committee on Pay Equity Survey of State-Government Level Pay Equity Activity 1988*. Washington, D.C.: National Committee on Pay Equity, 1988.

National Center for Health Statistics. *Health, United States, 1987*, No. (PHS) 88-1232. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, March 1988.

———. "Annual Summary of Births, Marriages, Divorces, and Deaths: United States, 1987." *Monthly Vital Statistics Report* 36, 13, No. (PHS) 88-1120. Hyattsville, Maryland: U.S. Public Health Service, July 1988.

National Science Foundation (NSF). *Women and Minorities in Science and Engineering*. Washington, D.C.: NSF, 1988.

U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 218. *Household and Family Characteristics: March 1970*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, March 1971.

———. *Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970, Part 1*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, September 1975.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-60, No. 127. *Money Income and Poverty Status of Families in the United States: 1980*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, August 1981.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 366. *Household and Family Characteristics: March 1980*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, September 1981.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-60, No. 151. *Money Income of Households, Families, and Persons in the United States: 1984*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, April 1986.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-60, No. 154. *Money Income and Poverty Status of Families and Persons in the United States: 1985*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, August 1986.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 411. *Household and Family Characteristics: March 1985*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, September 1986.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-70, No. 8. *Disability, Functional Limitation, and Health Insurance Coverage: 1984/1985*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, December 1986.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 424. *Household and Family Characteristics: March 1987*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, May 1988a.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 427. *Fertility of American Women: June 1987*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, May 1988b.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-60, No. 159. *Money Income of Households, Families, and Persons in the United States: 1986*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, June 1988.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-60, No. 161. *Money Income and Poverty Status in the United States: 1987*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, August 1988.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 432. *Households, Families, Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1988 (Ad-*

vance Report). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, September 1988.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-20, No. 433. *Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1988*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1989a.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-25, No. 1018. *Projections of the Population to the Year 2000*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1989b.

———. Current Population Reports. Series P-60, No. 162. *Money Income of Households, Families, and Persons in the United States: 1987*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, February 1989.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Marital and Family Characteristics of Workers: March 1960*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, April 1961.

———. *Employment and Earnings*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1976.

———. *Employment and Earnings*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1979.

———. *Employment and Earnings*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1984.

———. *Handbook of Labor Statistics*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, June 1985.

———. "Labor Force Activity of Mothers of Young Children Continues at Record Pace." *News*, USDL 85-381, September 19, 1985.

———. *Employment and Earnings*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1986.

———. *Employment and Earnings*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1987.

———. *Monthly Labor Review* 111 (March 1988): 7.

———. "Educational Level of U.S. Labor Force Continues to Rise." *News*, USDL 88-423, August 29, 1988.

———. *Employment and Earnings*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1989.

U.S. General Accounting Office (GAO). *Women in the Military: More Military Jobs Can Be Opened Under Current Status*. GAO/NSIAD-88-222. Washington, D.C.: GAO, September 1988.

Notes on the Contributors

Faith H. Ando is president of Faith Ando & Associates, Inc., a suburban Philadelphia economics and statistics consulting firm. A Harvard Ph.D., Dr. Ando began her formal research into issues of minority entrepreneurship in 1982 with support from the Minority Business Development Agency (MBDA). Since then, she has directed many empirical minority entrepreneurship studies and contributed her findings to numerous professional journals.

Janet Bickel is director for women's programs and senior staff associate in the Division of Institutional Planning and Development at the Association of American Medical Colleges (AAMC). She previously worked as the project director of an AAMC study on the integration of human values curricula into medical students' clinical education, and as staff director for the Organization of Student Representatives. Before joining AAMC, she was admissions and financial aid coordinator at Brown University's Program in Medicine.

Gloria Bonilla-Santiago is an assistant professor at the Graduate School of Social Work at Rutgers University and chairperson of the Hispanic Women's Task Force of New Jersey. Dr. Bonilla-Santiago has been instrumental in passing legislation for Hispanic women in New Jersey; this includes landmark legislation that appropriates funding for Hispanic women's centers. Among her publications are *Puerto Rican Migrant Farmworkers: The New Jersey Experience* and numerous articles on the conditions of Hispanic women in the United States.

Mariam Chamberlain is president of the National Council for Research on Women. She has served as a program officer in education and research at the Ford Foundation, and as a resident scholar and chair of the Task Force on Women in Higher Education at the Russell Sage Foundation. An economist by training, she is the author of several articles on women's studies and editor of *Women in Academe: Progress and Prospects* (1988).

Elizabeth Conway is a research associate at the Center for Social Policy Studies at The George Washington University. A former fellow with the Congressional Fellowships on Women and Public Policy Program of the Women's Research and Education Institute, Ms. Conway writes about labor economics, health care, and family policy issues.

Cushing N. Dolbeare has been a housing and public policy consultant since 1971, except for an interval when she served as president of the National Low Income Housing Coalition, which she founded. She is chair of the National Low Income Housing Coalition, as well as chair of its Women and Housing Task Force.

Betty Parsons Dooley has been director of the Women's Research and Education Institute since 1977. An early Texas feminist, she was active in state politics before moving to Washington, D.C. In 1964, she was a candidate for the U.S. House of Representatives from the 16th congressional district of Texas. She served for several years as director of the Health Security Action Council, an advocacy organization that worked for comprehensive national health insurance.

Elsa Honig Fine is editor and publisher of *Woman's Art Journal*, which she established in 1980. She is also the author of *Women and Art: A History of Women Painters and Sculptors from the Renaissance to the 20th Century* (1978) and *The Afro-American Artist: A Search for Identity* (1973), and coeditor of *Women's Studies and the Arts* (1978).

Arvonne S. Fraser is a senior fellow at the Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs at the University of Minnesota, where she directs the Women, Public Policy and Development Project and codirects the International Women's Rights Action Watch. During the Carter administration, she served as coordinator of the Office of Women in Development at the U.S. Agency for International Development. Dr. Fraser attended all three world women's conferences (two as a U.S. delegate) and acted as a U.S. advisor to the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women.

Sarah Harder is women's studies coordinator and a tenured faculty member at the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire. Cochair of the National Women's Conference Committee, she is also a leader of the Wisconsin Women's Network, Council of Presidents, and Women for a Meaningful Summit. Dr. Harder is a former president of the American Association of University Women and chair of the Wisconsin Women's Council.

Juanita Tamayo Lott is president of Tamayo Lott Associates of Silver Spring, Maryland. She chaired the Census Bureau Advisory Committee on Asian and Pacific Islander Populations for the 1990 census, served on the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights as deputy director of the Women's Rights Program and as director of the Program Analysis Division, and headed the Department of Health, Education and Welfare's Asian American Affairs Division. Her publications include *Pan Asian Women: A Vital Force* (1985) and *Beyond Stereotypes and Statistics* with Canta Pian (1979).

Harriette Pipes McAdoo is a professor at Howard University in the School of Social Work. A University of Michigan Ph.D., she has done post-doctoral work at Harvard University. Dr. McAdoo was the first recipient of the National Council on Family Relations' Marie Peters Award for Outstanding Scholarship, Leadership, and Service in the Area of Ethnic Minority Families. She has edited and written numerous works concerning black families. Most recently, she coedited *Services to Young Families*, *Program Review and Policy Recommendations*, and *Black Children: Social, Educational, and Parental Environments*.

Kate McGuinness is a 1983 graduate of Barnard College. She currently is working on her Master's degree in peace studies at the University of Lancaster in England. She is coauthor of "Women in Law Enforcement," *The American Woman, 1988-89*.

Fern Marx is a mid-career fellow at the Bush Center in Child Development and Social Policy at Yale University. A doctoral candidate at the Florence Heller School for Advanced Studies in Social Welfare at Brandeis University, Ms. Marx has participated in many studies of child care at the Wellesley College Center for Research on Women. Her recent publications include *The Public School Early Childhood Study: The State Survey* (1988) and *The Child Day Care Affordability Study: Technical Report* (1988).

Deborah L. Rhode is a professor of law and director of the

Institute for Research on Women and Gender at Stanford University. She graduated from Yale College and Yale Law School. The author of *Justice and Gender* (1989) and editor of *Theoretical Perspectives on Sexual Difference* (1990), she has written extensively on gender discrimination.

Michelle Seligson is the associate director/project director of the Center for Research on Women at Wellesley College. A graduate of the Harvard Graduate School of Education, Ms. Seligson has developed and directed national long-term studies on child care and early education. She is the coauthor of *Between Promise and Practice: Early Childhood Programs and the Public Schools* (1988) and *When School's Out and Nobody's Home* (1985).

C. Matthew Snipp is a fellow of the Center for Advanced Studies in the Behavioral Sciences in Palo Alto, California. Before joining the center, he was an associate professor of rural sociology at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. His most recent publication is *American Indians: The First of This Land* (1989).

Jean Stapleton is president of the board of directors of the Women's Research and Education Institute. A three-time Emmy award winner, Ms. Stapleton is an actor and singer in the theater, television, and film. She is a member of the national advisory board of the World Federalist Association and was a commissioner at the National Women's Conference in Houston in 1977. She is a leading proponent of the Equal Rights Amendment.

Sally Steenland is deputy director of the National Commission on Working Women, where she directs the organization's media projects. She has also worked for Ralph Nader and for the National Citizens Committee for Broadcasting. She is author of "Women in Broadcasting," *The American Woman, 1987-88*.

Anne J. Stone has been a research associate at WREI since 1981, having previously served on the Washington staff of then-U.S. Representative Elizabeth Holtzman. Ms. Stone has authored and coauthored policy analyses on various subjects, including the federal budget, employment issues for women, and tax reform legislation.

About the Women's Research and Education Institute

BETTY PARSONS DOOLEY, *Executive Director*
SARA E. RIX, *Director of Research*
ANNE J. STONE, *Research Associate*
ALISON DINEEN, *Fellowship Program Director*
TERRY A. WALKER, *Office Manager*

THE WOMEN'S RESEARCH AND EDUCATION INSTITUTE (WREI) is a nonprofit (501[c][3]) organization located in Washington, D.C. Established in 1977, WREI provides information, research, and policy analysis to the bipartisan Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues, as well as to other members of Congress.

From its inception, WREI has sought to facilitate and strengthen links between researchers and policymakers concerned with issues of particular importance to women. WREI gives high priority to:

- Encouraging researchers to consider the broader implications of their work, especially as it relates to public policy;
- Fostering the exchange of ideas and expertise between researchers with technical knowledge and policymakers familiar with the realities of the legislative process and political constraints; and
- Promoting both the informed examination of policies from the perspective of their effect on women and the formulation of policy options that recognize the needs of today's women and men and their families.

WREI's activities include publishing research reports and preparing briefing papers, holding conferences and symposia, and undertaking individual research projects. WREI sponsors the Congressional Fellowships on Women and Public Policy, a program open to graduate students with strong academic skills and a proven commitment to equity for women. The fellowship program has a dual purpose: to enhance the research capacity of congressional offices, especially with respect to the implications for women of existing and proposed legislation, and to provide promising women with hands-on experience in the federal legislative process.

WREI's research coordination and dissemination efforts are by no means restricted to federal policymakers, however, and WREI receives an increasing number of requests for information from the press, state and local officials, other organizations, and the public.

Board of Directors

Jean Stapleton, *President*
Dorothy Gregg, *Vice President*
Dorothy Height, *Secretary*
Esther Coopersmith, *Treasurer*
J. Michael Brown
Sharon Pratt Dixon
Evelyn Dubrow
Margaret M. Heckler
Matina Horner
Juanita Kreps
Helen S. Meyner
Helen Milliken
Alma Rangel
Annette Strauss
Celia G. Torres
Paquita Vivó
Diane E. Watson

Index

abortion ratio, 352–53, *table* 371
abortion rights, 34–35, 36, 60, 331, 335
  health risks, 53
  Supreme Court on, 16, 61–62, 67–68, 335
abuse
  of children, 338
  of women, *see* battered women
academic jobs and careers for women, 190
  art schools and departments, 245
  medical, 28, 217, 218–20
  wage gap, 37–38
  women as percent of all teachers, *table* 384
  see also scholars, women; teaching profession
Act for Better Child Care (ABC), 60, 67, 152–53, 163, 334, 336, 343
Addams, Jane, 24, 303, 304
Adolescent Family Life Act, 42
adolescents, *see* teenagers
affirmative action programs, 16, 52, 66, 172, 175, 188, 189–92, 400
African-Americans, *see* black . . .
aging, *see* older women
AIDS (acquired immunodeficiency syndrome), 45, 330
Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), 115
  recipients of: and employment, 47–48, 150; and housing discrimination, 95, 105, 125
airplane pilots, women, 358, *table* 384
Alaska native women, *see* American Indian women
alcohol abuse, 330
alimony, 60, 82; *see also* child support payments
All-American Girls Professional League [baseball] (1943–54), 49
Alliance for Displaced Homemakers, *see* Displaced Homemakers Network
Allison, Stacy, 46
Alzheimer's Disease Tax Credit Act, 343
"Amen" (television program), 233, 234
American Association of University Women (AAUW), 280, 285
American Bar Association, 45
American Express Company Foundation: Neighborhood Child Care Initiative Project (New York), 167–68
American Family Celebration (Washington, D.C., 1988), 40
American Housing Survey (AHS; 1985), 398
American Indian women, 26, 265–72
  diversity of, 267
  educational attainment, 270
  labor force participation, 266–72
  poverty rate, 26, 266, 272
  as scientists, 359, *table* 386
  unemployment rate, 268, 270–71, 272
American Nurses Association, 60
American Peace Society, 302
American Public Health Association, 50
American Telephone & Telegraph Co. (AT&T), 64
American Woman award (1989), 67
Ando, Faith, 28–29
Anguissola, Sefonisba, 243
Anthony, Susan B., 290–91
Aquino, Corazon, 262
architects, women as, 358, *table* 384
Arlington (Va.) National Cemetary, 50
armed forces, *see* military service, women in
art, women in, 29, 238–48
  courses on, 239, 246
  institutions and organizations, 245–48
  periodicals, 240–41, 244–45
  research and writing on, 240–45
  see also museums and galleries
art critics and historians, women, 29, 239, 240–45
Artemisia Gallery, Chicago, 246
artists, women, 29, 238
  feminist criticism of, 239, 240–45
  represented in museums and galleries, 29, 246–47
Asian-American women, 27, 258–64

- Asian-American women *(continued)*
  - diversity of, 259–60, 263
  - educational attainment, 260
  - entrepreneurs, 223, 224–30
  - labor force participation, 260–61
  - organizations (national), 263
  - scientists, *table* 386
  - *see also* Asian Indian-American women; Chinese-American women; Japanese-American women; Korean-American women; Vietnamese-American women
- Asian Indian-American women, 261; *see also* Asian-American women
- Association for Women in Development, 298
- Association of Part-Time Professionals, 210
- athletes and athletics, *see* sports
- Avery, Sally Michel, 243–44
- Avon Products, 36
- Awkard, Veronica, 45–46
- Azar, Suzie, 64

- Babcock, Barbara, 191
- "Baby M" case, 35
- Bailey, Hannah, 302–3
- Balch, Emily Green, 303, 304
- BankAmerica Foundation: California Child Care Initiative, 167
- banks and banking
  - loans, *see* credit, women's access
  - savings and loans, 338–39
- Bartuska, Doris G., 219
- Baseball Hall of Fame, Cooperstown, N.Y., 49
- battered women
  - housing needs, 97, 129–30
  - legislation for, 281, 326, 328, 330
- Beck, Evelyn Torton, ed.: *Prism of Sex, The,* 323
- Beaux, Cecelia, 239
- Bellagio (Italy) conference, 296–97
- Bergmann, Barbara, 15
- birth rate, by race, 352, *table* 370
- black children, *see* children, black
- black families, 71–93
  - children in, *see* children, black
  - diversity of, 71, 74, 84
  - family structure and types, 71, 76–78, *table* 77, 353, *table* 373
  - female-headed, 31, 71, 76, *table* 77, 353, *table* 373; housing, *table* 99, 100, 106, 354, 375; poor, 12, 72, 77, 81 and *table,* 82
  - headed by male (alone), 71, 76, *table* 77
  - housing type, by household type, 99 and *table,* 100
  - income, by family type, *table* 394
  - married-couple, *see* married couples: black
  - poverty rates, 363, *table* 396
  - stereotyped, 71, 74
  - women's traditional role in, 90–91
- black men
  - and education, 73, 87, 88, 89–90
  - as head of household (alone), 71, 76, *table* 77; income of, 77
  - life expectancy, 88–89
- black men and black women, compared
  - death rates, by age, 350, *table* 366
  - as doctoral degree recipents, 55
  - earnings, 360, 391
  - handicapped, *table* 367
  - in higher education, 89
  - income sources, *table* 395
  - labor force participation, 355, *table* 376
  - marital status, 79–80, *table* 80
  - ratio in black population, 72, 78, 79–80 and *tables*
  - unemployment rates, *table* 381
- Blackmun, Harry A., 65, 68
- black women
  - authors (19th century), 38
  - and black men, *see* black men and black women, compared
  - college graduates, wage gap, 176
  - divorced, *see* divorced women, black
  - entrepreneurs, 223, 224–30 *passim*
  - head of family, *see* families, female-headed: black
  - traditional role in family, 90–91
- black women and white women, compared
  - adolescent pregnancy, 84
  - birth rates, 352 *table* 370
  - college graduates, earnings, 176
  - divorced, and alimony and property settlements, 60
  - earnings (weekly), 360, 391
  - elderly homeowners, 100
  - employed outside home, 72
  - handicapped, *table* 367
  - heads of household, and housing, 354, 375
  - income sources, 362, *table* 395
  - labor force participation, 355, *table* 376
  - scientists, *table* 386
  - unemployment rates, 357, *table* 381
  - working mothers, 138, 139
- Blevins, Beth, 40
- Boggs, Lindy, 67, 329–30
- Bonheur, Rosa, 243
- Bonilla-Santiago, Gloria, 26–27
- Boserup, Esther, 23
  - *Women's Roles in Economic Development,* 294–95
- *Bowen v. Kendrick* case (1988), 42
- Boxer, Barbara, 312, 380

Boy Scouts of America, 35
Bramsen, Michele Bo, ed.: *Women and World Development*, 293
breast cancer screenings, 41, 331
Broude, Norma: "Degas's Misogyny," 242
Brown University, Providence, R.I., 318
Bumpers, Betty, 311
Bush, George
  election (1988), voting patterns by gender, 42, 49–50
  vetoes minimum-wage legislation, 66
Bush administration
  and child-care issue, 57
  women nominated/appointed by, 51, 54, 63, 284–85
businesses, women-owned, 28–29, 222–30, 400–401
  hearings on difficulties of, 38
  legislative support for, 49, 329
  minority women and, 28, 223, 224–30 *passim*
  success factors: educational attainment, 225, 226; ethnicity *vs.* sex, 224–30; managerial experience, 225–27

Caho, Elaine, 263
Caldicott, Helen, 312
Califano, Joseph, 75
California: child care programs and coordination, 161–62, 167
campaign, political (1988), 34; *see also* election, presidential (1988)
cancer, breast, 41, 331
career advancement, *see* promotions and career advancement
career choices, 175, 177, 178, 179–82
  family obligations and, 52; *see also* homemaking: *vs.* paid work, as choice or burden for women
  of medical school graduates, 217–18
  preconceptions limit, 171, 180–81, 186
Carl Perkins Applied Technology Education Program Act, 62–63
Catalyst [organization], 36
Catastrophic Health Care Insurance Act (1988), 41, 331
Catt, Carrie Chapman, 291, 303
Central and South Americans in the U.S., 250
  poverty rate, 252
Central and South American women in the U.S.
  age distribution, *table* 365
  in labor force, 253
Chamberlain, Mariam, 24–26
Characteristics of Business Owners Survey (1982), 222–30 *passim*, 400–401
Chicago, Judy: *Dinner Party, The*, 241
Chicago
  police department, discriminatory policies, 37
  women's art programs, 246
childbearing, and marital status, by age, 352, *table* 370
child care, 132–69
  Act for Better Child Care Services (ABC), 60, 67, 152–53, 163, 334, 336, 343
  affordability, 133, 134, 135, 137, 142, 146
  after-school programs, 134, 144–45, 164, 336, 400
  American Indian women and, 269
  availability, 13, 91, 143–45; *vs.* affordability, 146–50, 154
  black women and, 91, 149
  data base needed, 132–33, 141, 143, 160
  and early childhood education, 134, 137, 139–40, 143, 145, 154, 159, 399
  employer-sponsored, 39, 64, 136, 137, 146, 160–61, 165–68, 169, 187, 327, 336, 342
  federal legislation and policy, 15, 57–58, 60, 67, 132, 135, 137, 138, 139, 145–46, 151–54, 168, 282, 283, 284, 326, 327, 330, 331, 332, 334, 335–36, 337, 339, 342, 343, 344, 399–400
  for homeless women, 129
  local governments and, 135–36, 157, 169
  male employees and, 52
  parental leave for, *see* parental leave
  prekindergarten programs, 158, 159, 163, 399
  in public housing, 35, 329, 332
  quality, as primary concern, 133, 134, 135, 137, 143, 146, 150–51
  regulation and standards, 151, 153, 157
  resource and referral programs (CCRRs), 160–62
  shortage of, and need for, 13, 91, 144, 172, 186, 187, 188, 224, 269, 326, 327, 329
  sources of, 133, 141–43; group care centers, 133, 141, 142; relatives, 133, 141, 142; school, 136, 156, 158, 162–65, 169, 336, 400
  staff, *see* child-care workers
  states and, 67, 135, 145–46, 154–56, 160–62, 169
  tax system and, 135, 137, 151, 152, 156, 165, 336, 343, 399, 400
  for training-program participants, 48, 150, 154, 156, 157
  see also day care
Child Care Challenge, 39, 327
Child Care Services Improvement Act, 153
child-care workers

child-care workers *(continued)*
  salaries, 134, 146, 151, 152, 155, 156, 159
  shortages and quality of, 134, 146, 151, 152
  training, 156, 162
  women as percent of, *table* 384
Child Development and Education Act (1989), 60, 67, 163
childlessness, 67
childrearing responsibility
  of men *vs.* women, 14, 58–59, 133
  of women, 13; entrepreneurs, 223–24
children
  with AIDS, 330
  black, *see* children, black
  in female-headed families, 12, 72, 77; poor, 12, 72, 77, 103–4, 363, *table* 397; in rented housing, 94–95
  homeless, 128–29, 338
  living arrangements, by race and Hispanic origin, 354, *table* 374
  with mother in labor force, 356, *table* 380; *see also* workforce, women in: mothers
  poor, 342; black, *see* children, black: poor; in female-headed families, *see* children: in female-headed families: poor
  in single-parent households, 34
  in unmarried-couple households, 352, *table* 371
  see also infant mortality
children, black, 80–84
  devalued sense of self-worth, 84
  infant mortality, 86, 328
  in one-parent families, 80–81
  poor, in female-headed families, 12, 72, 77, 81 and *table,* 82–83, 363, *table* 397
Children in Need (Committee on Economic Development), 140
Children's Defense Fund, 141, 146–47, 154–55, 156
"Children's Trust Fund," 338
child support payments, compliance and enforcement, 39, 48, 281
Chinese-American women, 258
  educational attainment, 260
  national organization of, 263
  see also Asian-American women
Chiti, Judith, 242
Chung, Connie, 262, 263
circumcision, female, 289, 294
city and town governments, *see* local governments
City of Richmond v. J. A. Croson Co. case (1989), 52
Civil Rights Act (1964). Title VII, 14, 40, 62, 188, 300
Civil Rights Restoration Act (1988), 34, 36, 37, 282
Clemente, Lilia, 263
Coalition for Women's Appointments, 44, 63, 284
Coalition of Labor Union Women, 40
Cockrell, Lila, 64
college graduates (women), in labor force, 355–56, *table* 377
  American Indian, 270, 271
  black, and wage gap, 176
  wage gap, 175–76, 361, *table* 392
colleges and universities, *see* higher education; *and specific institutions*
college students
  black women and men, compared, 89
Collins, Cardiss, 330–31
Columbia University, New York, 322
Committee on Economic Development: *Children in Need,* 140
Communications Workers of America, 64
comparable worth, *see* pay equity
companies and corporations
  child care facilities and policies, 39, 64, 136, 137, 146, 160–61, 165–68, 169, 187, 327, 336, 342
  supporting women's career development, 36
  women-owned, *see* businesses, women-owned
  women as directors, 359, *table* 388
Congress, *see* U.S. Congress
Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues, 285, 325–46
  its Child Care Challenge, 39, 327
  cochairs' report, 326–29
  legislative priorities, 15, 282, 326–29
  members (list), 344–46
Constitution, *see* U.S. Constitution
contingent work, 203–11, 356, *table* 378
  lack of employee benefits, 203, 205–7, 210–11, 341–42
  lack of job security, 203, 205
  low pay, 204, 205–6
  see also part-time work; temporary work
contraceptive methods and devices
  cervical cap, 40
  ignorance of, 85
  implants, 62
  most popular, 44–45
contract work, 203, 204; *see also* contingent work

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (U.N., 1979), 276, 292, 297
Conway, Elizabeth, 30
Copenhagen conference, 295–96
Corday, Barbara, 236
Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y., 316
Corning Glass Works, Corning, N.Y., 36
corporations, *see* companies and corporations
Cosby, Bill and Camille, 49
Cosby Show, The (television program), 74
Council of Chief State School Officers, 140
Council of Presidents [of national women's organizations], 23, 281–86
county governments, *see* local governments
credit, women's access, 329
  commercial, 28–29, 38, 49, 226, 229–30
Cuban-Americans, 250
  as displaced homemakers, 130
  international, 293
  poverty rate, 252
Cuban-American women
  age distribution, 350, *table* 365
  as first mayor of U.S. city, 58
  in labor force, 253; earnings, 254
  see also Hispanic women
Cudahy, Dorothy Hayden, 58, 59

Davidson, Nicholas: *Failure of Feminism, The*, 273
DAWN (Development Alternatives with Women for a New Era) group, 297
day care
  centers, 133, 141, 142, 143, 332, 400; costs, 147
  need to increase, 327, 334
  standards for, 151, 400
  unregulated, 143
  see also child care; Head Start
death rates, *see* mortality rates
Decade for Women, 23, 273, 275–76, 289, 290, 291, 292
Decade of Achievement: 1977–1987; report, 276–77
degrees, academic
  doctoral: black men's *vs.* black women's percent of, 55; women's percent of, 54–55
  medical, 212
  in women's studies, 318–19
Dehner, Dorothy, 243
Democratic party, 34
dependent care, *see* child care and family caregiving
Dependent Care Tax Credit legislation, 343
discrimination, *see* segregation by gender in workforce; sex discrimination . . .
displaced homemakers, *see* homemakers, displaced
Displaced Homemakers Network, 56–57
divorce: sons as deterrent to, 34
divorced women, 351, *table* 368
  mothers, in workforce, 138
  and veteran's disability benefits of ex-husband, 65
  see also homemakers, displaced; remarriage
divorced women, black
  and divorced men, compared, 80 and *table*
  financial situation, 82
  single mothers, 85
  and white divorced women, alimony and property settlements, 60
doctors, women
  number of, 28, 212, 220–21
  as percent of all doctors, *table* 384
  see also medicine as profession . . .
Dolbeare, Cushing, 31–32
Dole, Elizabeth Hanford, 51
domestic violence, *see* battered women
Downie, Susannah, ed.: *Decade of Achievement*, 276–77
Drigges, Elsie, 243
drugs, illegal, 330, 344
Dukakis, Michael, 42
Duke University, Durham, N.C., 322
Duncan, Carol, 243
DuPont Company, 36, 52
Durenberger, David, 332

early childhood education
  and child care, 134, 137, 139–40, 143, 145, 154, 159, 399
  states and, 157–60, 163, 399
earnings
  annual, by sex, 360, 390
  weekly: mean, by sex and educational attainment, 361, *table* 392; median, by sex and age, 360–61, *table* 391; by sex, race, and Hispanic origin, 360, *391*
  see also income
earnings, women's
  of black adolescent mothers, 87
  vs. cost of child care, 146–50
  educational attainment and, 87, 361, *table* 391
  Hispanic, 252, 254
  importance to families, 13, 362, *table* 394; black wives', 72
  low, 170, 171, 181, 182, 205–6; *see also* pay equity; wage gap

earnings *(continued)*
  and men's, contrasted (wage ratios), 170, 171–72, 173, 174, 175–76, 179, 360–61, *390, 391*, *table* 391; *see also* pay equity
  nurses', 51, 60, 332
  as part-time workers, 205–6
Economic Equity Act (EEA), 326, 329, 330, 336
editors and reporters, women, 358, *table* 384
education
  American Indian women and, 260
  Asian and Pacific women and, 260
  blacks and, 73–74, 92–93; teenage mothers, 86; young men, 73, 87, 88, 89–90; young women, 89
  early childhood, *see* early childhood education
  and earnings, by sex, 361, *table* 392
  Hispanic women and, 252, 257
  and labor force participation, by sex, 355–56, *table* 377
  as legislative priority, 333, 339, 344
  women entrepreneurs and, 225, 226
  women's access to, 14, 340
  see also academic jobs and careers for women; college graduates (women), in labor force; college students; higher education; high schools; job training and education; medical schools; scholars, women; schools, public
Education Amendments of 1972, Title IX, 14, 16, 34, 63, 212–13
Education Consolidation and Improvement Act (ECIA), 163
Edwards, Don, 43, 52
elderly women, *see* older women
Eleanor Roosevelt International Caucus of Political Women, 298
elected women, 359, *table* 387
  in Congress, 11, 52, 60, 359, *table* 387
  mayors, 58, 64, 255
election, presidential (1988)
  voting patterns by gender, 42, 49–50, 53, 284
  women's movement and, 283–84
  see also campaign, political (1988)
Elion, Gertrude, 48
Employee Benefit Research Institute (EBRI), 51
Employment and Training Choices (E.T. Choices) program (Massachusetts), 150, 155
employment outside home
  Air Force wives and, 36–37
  black women and, 72, 91
  career advancement, *see* promotions and career advancement
  compensation for, *see* earnings; pay equity; wage gap
  of mothers, *see* workforce, women in: mothers
  sex discrimination in, *see* sex discrimination in workplace
  see also workforce, women in
Engeleiter, Susan, 54
engineers, women as, 340–41, 358–59, *table* 386
entrepreneurs, women, *see* businesses, women-owned
Episcopal Church, first woman bishop, 56, 57
Equal Credit Opportunity Act, 38
Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), 47
Equal Pay Act (1963), 14, 400
Equal Rights Amendment (ERA), 291
  ratification, 22, 277, 279
  reintroduced, 43, 52, 54, 282, 283
Equity Policy Center, 296
European Community: social charter, 22
exercise, and fertility, 35–36

Fair Housing Amendments (1988), 105
"Falcon Crest" (television program), 234
families, black, *see* black families
families, female-headed
  Asian and Pacific American, 262
  black, 12, 31, 71, 76, *table* 77, 353, *table* 373
  housing for, 354, *375*; cost of, 110, *table* 111; and federal housing subsidies, 113; by income and poverty rate, *table* 101, 102, 103 and *table*, 104; quality of, 106; public, by race, 354, *375*; by race and Hispanic origin, *table* 99, 100; rented, 94, 100, 354, *375*
  income, 12, 72, 100, 101 and *table*, 102, 103 and *table*, 104 and *table*, 362, *table* 394; of renters, 94, 102
  poverty rate, *see* poor: female-headed families as
  by race and Hispanic origin, 353, *table* 373
  work experience of woman, 72, 82
  see also children: in female-headed families; mothers, single
families, male-headed (alone)
  black, 71, 76, *table* 77

  housing: by income and poverty rate, *table* 101; by race and Hispanic origin, *table* 100
  income, *table* 394; black, 77
  by race, 353, *table* 373
families, non-traditional, *see* unmarried-couple households
families, traditional, 12, 354, *table* 374
  black, 71
  see also married couples
families, two-earner type, 354, *table* 374
  black, 72, 77-78
  and child care, 133
  see also married couples
Family and Medical Leave Act (1987), 48
Family and Medical Leave Act (1989), 58, 61, 62, 326–27, 330, 341, 342
Family Building Act, 342
family caregiving
  leave granted for, *see* leave for family caregiving
  as woman's responsibility, 13
  see also child care; childrearing responsibility
Family Care International, 298
Family Impact Seminar (1989), 143, 145, 146
family leave, *see* leave for family caregiving
family planning services, 34–35, 331, 333
Family Support Act (1989), 153–54, 159
family types (U.S.), 353–54, *tables* 372–74
  housing, by race, *table* 99
  and income, 100, 101 and *table,* 102, 103 and *table,* 104 and *table,* 362, *table* 394
  by labor force status and presence of children, 354, *table* 374
fathers
  child care provided by, 142; *see also* childrearing responsibility
  see also child support; families, male-headed (alone)
federal employees
  appointees, women as, 44, 51, 54, 63, 284–85
  congressional: job protection, 39–40; sex discrimination, 46
  family-building services for, 342
  pay equity for, 46
  and sexual harassment, 43, 45–46
Federal Equitable Pay Practices Act (1987), 46
female occupations, 174, 176, 177, 179, 180, 182, 261
feminism, *see* organizations, women's; women's movement . . .
Feminist Art Journal, The (periodical), 240–41
Feminist Studies (periodical), 318
fertility rate
  of American Indian women, 269
  exercise and, 35–36
  of Hispanic women, 27, 255–56
FHA, *see* U.S. Farmers Home Administration
Fields, Cmdr. Evelyn J., 55
Filipino-American women, 259
  educational attainment, 260
  labor force participation, 261
  see also Pacific-American women
Fine, Elsa Honig, 29
  Women and Art, 240
firefighters, women, 358, *table* 384
flextime, 172, 186, 187, 188, 324
  and child care, 136, 142, 166
Florida: child care programs and coordination, 162
Florida Star v. B.J.F. case (1989), 66–67
Florida v. Long case (1988), 42
Focus on the First 60 Months (National Governors' Association), 140
food stamp recipiency, and federal housing assistance, compared, 115, 116, 119
Ford Foundation, 297, 317, 322
Forward-Looking Strategies (1985), 273, 276, 287, 298
Frankenthaler, Helen, 243
Fraser, Arvonne, 23–24
functional limitations, 350, *table* 367
Furstenberg, Frank, 85

galleries (art), *see* museums and galleries
Gannett Company, 36
GAO, *see* U.S. General Accounting Office
Gates, Henry Louis, Jr., 38
gender differences, *see* men and women, compared
  in workplace, *see* segregation by gender, in workforce; sex discrimination, in workplace
George Washington University, Washington, D.C., 320
Gentileschi, Artemisia, 243
Global Fund for Women, 298
Gouma-Peterson, Thalia, 244
government employees, *see* elected women; federal employees
Gramm, Wendy Lee, 263
Grandmothers for Peace, 310–11
Griffith Joyner, Florence, 45, 50
Grove City College v. Bell case (1984), 34, 37, 282

Guamanian-American women, 260; *see also* Pacific-American women
Guerrilla Girls, 246–47
Guttmacher (Alan) Institute, 45

handicapped, 350, *table* 367
harassment, sexual, 185
  in armed services, 35
  federal employees and, 43, 45–46
  hearings (congressional) on, 37
Harder, Sarah, 22–23
Harris, Barbara Clementine, 56, 57
Harris, Rosalind, 293
Harris Trust and Savings Bank, Chicago, 53
Harvard Corporation, 56
head-of-family, female, *see* families, female-headed
Head Start program, 139, 140, 157, 159, 163, 333, 400
health-care
  access to, 337; for children, 330, 338, 342; for women, 330
  costs of, 336
  legislation on, 339
  see also prenatal care
health insurance coverage, 283
  for AFDC recipients in training programs, 48
  Catastrophic Health Care Insurance Act, 41, 331
  for contingent workers, 206–7, 210, 211, 341
  gender differences in, 175
Heller, Billie, 292
Heller, Nancy: *Women Artists*, 243
Heresies (periodical), 244
Hicks v. *Fetock* case (1988), 39
higher education
  black colleges, 49
  black males and females and, 89
  courses on women artists, 239
  courses in women's studies, *see* women's studies programs
  women's enrollment increases, 324
  see also academic jobs and careers for women; degrees, academic
high school graduates
  black adolescent mothers, 86–87
  earnings, 361, *table* 392
  in labor force, 356, *table* 377
high schools
  dropouts from, 63, 330; American Indian women, 270; black males, 88; unmarried mothers, 87
  policy toward pregnant students, 63, 86–87
Hills, Carla, 51
Hispanic-Americans
  children, living arrangements, 354, *table* 374
  earnings, 360, *391*
  educational attainment, 252
  families headed by women, 353, *table* 373; poor children in, 363, *table* 397
  family types, 353, *table* 373; and income, *table* 394
  handicapped, *table* 367
  housing, by household type, 99 and *table*, 100
  immigration to U.S., 250–51
  income, sources of, 362, *table* 395
  labor force participation, by sex, 355, *table* 376; unemployment rates, by sex, *table* 381
  marital status, *table* 368
  population, 249
  poverty rates, 363, *table* 396
  subgroups, diversity of, 26, 249–50, 256
Hispanic women, 26–27, 249–57
  age distribution, 254–55, 349, *table* 365
  earnings, 360, *391*
  educational attainment, 252, 257
  entrepreneurs, 223, 224–30
  fertility rate, 27, 255–56
  gender roles, traditional, 256–57
  handicapped, *table* 367
  heads of household, and housing, 354, *375*
  and inadequate housing, 106
  in labor force, 27, 252–56, 355, *table* 376; occupational distribution, 253–54
  marital status, *table* 368
  poverty rate, 26
  scientists, *table* 386
  unemployment rates, *table* 381
  see also Central and South American women; Cuban-American women; Mexican-American women; Puerto Rican-origin women
Hitchings, George, 48
Hobbs, Robert, 243
Holmes, Phyllis, 45
homelessness
  battered women and, 130
  of children, 128–29, 338
  and housing needs, 97, 122, 128–29
  subsidized housing availability and, 112, 117, 128
homemakers, displaced, 326, 329
  groups, programs and services, 277
  housing needs of, 97, 130
  vocational education for, 62, 340

homemaking
  vs. paid work, as choice or burden for women, 13, 14, 33, 52, 58–59, 91, 172, 187, 211, 331–32, 357
  as reason for not being in labor force, by sex, 357, *382*
  women's *vs.* men's share of, 33, 171, 181, 182, 186
  see also childrearing responsibility; family caregiving
homeownership
  affordable, increasing supply, 124–25
  costs, 108, *table* 109
  and income, *table* 101, 102, 103 and *table,* 104
  as percent of all households, 97 by female heads of household, *table* 99, 100, 101 and *table,* 102, 354, *375*; by household type, race and Hispanic origin, 99 and *table,* 100; by married couples, *table* 99, 100; by single women, *table,* 100
  tax deductions for, 32, 96, 113, 117–19, 121, 125
homosexuals
  legal recognition of couples, 65
  see also lesbians
Hope, Judith Richards, 56
Hopper, Josephine Nivison, 243
Hosken, Fran, 293–94
housework, *see* homemaking
housing, 94–131
  cost of, *see* housing costs
  discrimination: in and protection against, 43, 94–95, 104–5, 125
  by family type: by income, 100, 101 and *table,* 102, 103 and *table*; by race and Hispanic origin, *table* 99
  federal legislation, 35, 43, 105
  federally assisted units and programs, 95, 96, 112, 113–17
  for female-headed families, *see* families, female-headed: housing
  homeowner tax deductions, 32, 96, 113, 117–19, 121, 125
  for low- and moderate-income people, 31–32, 94–131, 338; subsidies, 112, 113–16
  private sector and, 96, 112, 124, 127
  public, 114; female-headed families in, 354, *375*
  public policy and federal role, 121–27; women's involvement, 124, 128
  quality of, 95, 106, 107, 123
  supply *vs.* availability, 107–8; of subsidized units, 116–17
  as women's issue, 97–98, 121, 123–24, 127
  see also homeownership; rented housing
Housing and Community Development authorization, 35
housing costs, 108–13
  federal policy and, 123–24, 338
  federal subsidies and, 113–23, 125; as entitlement (or not), 115–16, 122; and other public assistance programs compared, 115, 116, 119; "Section 8," 114–15, 117, 119
  for female heads of household, 110
  as percent of income, 95, 97; for renters *vs.* owners, 108–10, *table* 109, 111–12
HUD, *see* U.S. (Dept. of) Housing and Urban Development
husbands, *see* men

IBM, 48, 167
income, of families
  average, *vs.* poorest and richest, 59–60
  black, 72, 76; male-headed, 77; married-couple, 77, 78; two-earner type, 72, 78
  female-headed, 12, 72, 100, 101 and *table,* 102, 103 and *table,* 104 and *table,* 362, *table* 394
  Hispanic, 251–52
  by household type, 100, 101 and *table,* 102, 103 and *table,* 104 and *table,* 362, *table* 394
  by housing type, 100, 101 and *table,* 102, 103 and *table*
  percent spent for housing, *see* housing costs
  women's contribution to, 13, 72
  see also earnings; poor
income, individual
  of Asian and Pacific American women, 261–62
  of elderly single females, 95, 99, *table* 100
  by housing type, 100, 101 and *table*
  low, *see* poor
  median, by age and sex, 361–62, *393*
  sources of, 362, *table* 395
  see also earnings; poor
Indian women, *see* American Indian women; Asian Indian-American women
industry: distribution, of employed women and men by, 358, *385*
infant mortality rate, 44, 326, 328, 330, 334
  black, 86, 328
insurance
  disability, 327
  gender discrimination in, 281
  medical, *see* health insurance

Intergenerational Library Literacy Act, 343
International Alliance for Women (IAW), 291
International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers, 64
International Business Machines, 48, 167
International Center for Research on Women, 296
International Congress of Women, 290–91, 304, 310
International Council of Women, 291
international development and cooperation, 21, 23–24, 287–300
  American women's in/women's experience in international scene, 24, 288, 293, 296
  women's economic roles, 294–95, 298–300
International Women's Rights Action Watch (IWRAW), 292
International Women's Tribune Center, New York, 293
International Women's Year (IWY), 23, 276, 289, 291–92
  U.N. conference (1975), 292–93
ISIS (periodical), 294

Japanese-American women, 258, 259; *see also* Asian-American women
Job Opportunity and Basic Skills (JOBS) programs, 48, 153–54
job protection
  for congressional employees, 39–40
  in leave-taking policy for workers, 13, 14, 327, 335
job-sharing, 210
Jobs With Peace Campaign, 308
job training and education
  for adolescent parents, 87
  for AFDC recipients, 48
  impact on occupational choices, 190
  sex equity in, 62–63
  women's access to, 340
Johnson, Nancy, 331–32
Joint Center for Political Studies, 89
Joyner-Kersee, Jackie, 45, 46
judiciary
  blacks in, 35
  women in, 35, 38

Kahlo, Frido, 243
Kaptur, Marcy, 332–33
Kassebaum, Nancy Landon, 333
Kennedy, Edward, 35, 54
Kennelly, Barbara B., 333–34
Koop, C. Everett, 53
Korean-American women, 259
  educational attainment, 260
  in family businesses, 261
  see also Asian-American women
Kowalski, Sharon, 55–56
Krasner, Lee, 243

labor force (paid)
  participation in (statistics), *see* population statistics (U.S.): labor force participation
  women in, *see* workforce, women in
labor unions, and child care, 140
Ladd, William, 302
language, gender-free, 37, 39
latchkey children, *see* child care: after-school programs
Latinas, *see* Hispanic women
Lauter, Paul: *Reconstructing American Literature,* 324
law enforcement, women in, 358, *table* 384
lawyers (women), 45, 176–77
  as percent of all lawyers, 358, *table* 384
League of Women Voters (LWV), 280
leave for family caregiving, 13, 14, 55, 187–88
  employer-sponsored, 48, 64
  job protection for, 13, 14, 327, 335
  legislation on, 15, 47, 48, 56, 61, 62, 281, 282, 283, 285, 326–27, 336, 339, 341, 342
  paid *vs.* unpaid, 15, 61
  see also Family and Medical Leave Act; parental leave; pregnancy disability leave
Lerner, Gerda: *Teaching Women's History,* 321
lesbians: see Kowalski, Sharon
Lippard, Lucy, 239, 241
literacy, 343
loans, *see* credit, women's access to
local governments
  and child care, 135–36, 157, 169
  mayors, women as, 58, 64, 255
Lorance v. AT&T Technologies case (1989), 66
Lott, Juanita Tamayo, 27
Lowey, Nita M., 52, 334–35
Lyng, Richard E., 38

McAdoo, Harriette Pipes, 31
McGuinness, Kate, 24
McMahon, Patricia, 25, 316
MacMonnies, Mary Fairchild, 243
Madison (Wis.) Day Care Unit, 148, 157
male-dominated occupations and worksites, 27–28
  difficulties of token females, 186
  sexual harassment in, 185

  women's increased access to, 170, 174, 176–77, 185, 358, *table* 384
  see also segregation by gender, in workforce
Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation (MDRC), 47
Marcy, Mildred, 295
Marine Corps Security Guard School, Quantico, Va., 44
marital status
  and abortion ratio, 352–53, *table* 371
  in black community, 79–80, *table* 80, *table* 368
  and childbearing, 352, *table* 370
  by sex and race, 351, *table* 368
  see also divorced women; family types; never-married women; separation, marital; single women
married couples
  black, 71, 72, 76, *table* 77; family size, 77; income, 77–78; woman's role, 91
  and child care, 133
  housing: by income, *table* 101; by race and Hispanic origin, 99 and *table,* 100
  income, 362, *table* 394; black, 77–78; and housing type, *table* 101
  as percent of all households, 353, *table* 372
  by race and Hispanic origin, 353, *table* 373
  see also families, traditional; families, two-earner type
married women, 351, *table* 368
  abortion ratios, 353, *table* 371
  American Indian, and labor market, 271–72
  black: earnings of, 72; role in family, 91
  childless, 67
  employed, and household tasks, 181
  entrepreneurs, 225, 228–29
  violence to, *see* battered women
Martin, Lynn, 39
Martin, Richard, 248
Martin v. Wilkes case (1989), 16, 66
Massachusetts: child care programs, 150, 155–56
Massachusetts Peace Society, 302
Maternal and Child Health Services Block Grant program, 334
maternal mortality rate, 44
maternity leave, *see* leave for family caregiving; pregnancy disability leave
Mathematica Policy Research, Inc.: survey of child care, 143, 145
mathematics, *see* science and mathematics
Mathews, Patricia, 244
Matthews, Burnita, 38
mayors, women, 58, 64, 255
Mead, Margaret, 184
media
  portrayal of: Asian and Pacific American women, 262, 263; black people, 71, 74
  on women's movement, 273, 281
  see also television industry
Medicaid, 41, 116, 207
medical insurance, *see* health insurance coverage
medical schools, women in, 212–21
  applicants, 28, 212–13, 214, 360, *table* 389; successful, 28, 213–14, 360, *table* 389
  degree recipients, 212
  faculty, 28, 218–20
  graduates, career choices, 217–18; *see also* doctors, women as
  students: financial situation, 216; performance, 215–17; stress, 215–16
Medicare
  and breast cancer screenings, 41, 331
  for contingent workers, 207
  hospital rates, and nurses' pay, 51
medicine as profession, women in
  career choices, 217–18
  Nobel Prize (1988), 48
  segregation and gender discrimination, 176
  training, *see* medical schools, women in
  see also doctors, women
Memphis State University, Tenn., 322
men
  heads of household, *see* families, male-headed (alone)
  likelihood of marrying mothers of children they father out-of-wedlock, 54
  see also fathers
men and women compared
  black, *see* black men and black women, compared
  career choices and family obligations, 52
  childrearing responsibility, 14, 58–59, 133
  cost of employing, in management positions, 58–59
  earnings, *see* earnings
  as entrepreneurs, 224–30 *passim*
  handicapped, 350–51, *tables* 367
  and household tasks, 33, 171, 181, 182, 186
  income sources, *table* 395
  labor force participation, 355, *table* 376; college graduates, 355–56, *table* 377; industry distribution, 358, 385; lack of, reasons for, 357, 382; occupational distribution, 357–58, 383, *table* 384; scientists, employment sectors, *table* 386; unemployment rates, *table* 381
  marital status, 351, *table* 368

men and women compared *(continued)*
  in medical schools, application rates and performance, 213–21 *passim*, 360, *table* 389
  population, by race, 349, 364
Meritor Savings Bank, FSB v. Vinson case (1986), 185
Methodist Church, 39
Mexican-Americans, 249, 250
  poverty rate, 252
Mexican-American women
  age distribution, 350 *table* 365
  in labor force, 253; earnings, 254
  see also Hispanic women
Mexican American Women's National Association, 285
Mexico City conference, 292–93
Meyers, Jan, 335–36
military service, women in, 359, *table* 388
  memorials to, 50–51
  restrictions, 44, 49; combat exclusion, 49
  sexual harassment and discrimination, 35
  see also veterans, female; *and specific branches of armed forces, under* U.S. . . .
Miller, Jean Baker: *Toward a New Psychology of Women*, 324
minimum wage legislation, 63–64, 282, 283, 284, 334, 335
minority women
  and academic degrees, 55
  entrepreneurs, 28, 223, 224–30
  and housing, 106; *see also* black families: housing type; Hispanic-Americans: housing
  and occupational segregation and discrimination, 176, 177, 185
  and unemployment, 176
  see also American Indian women; Asian-American women; black women; Hispanic women; Pacific American women
Mitchell, George, 284
Mitchell, Joan, 243
Mittelman, Portia Porter, 52
Mobilization for Survival, 306
Moran, Mary Nimmo, 243
Morella, Constance A., 336–37
Morgan, Gwen, 146
Morgan, Julia, 243
Morisot, Berthe, 239, 243, 247
mortality rates
  by age, race and sex, 350, *table* 366
  infant, 44, 326, 328, 330, 334; black, 86, 328
  maternal, 44
mothers
  homeless, housing needs of, 97
  in labor force, *see* workforce, women in
  unemployed, and child care, 149
mothers, single, 352, *table* 370
  black, 80, 82, 84–87; divorced, separated, widowed, 85; and educational attainment, 87; *see also* black families: female-headed
  divorced, and labor force participation, 138
  see also families, female-headed; teenagers, pregnant; unmarried mothers
Mothers Embracing Nuclear Disarmament (MEND), 311
Mott, Lucretia, 288, 289
Mt. Everest, climbing of, 46
Mt. Holyoke College, South Hadley, Mass. Conference on Women's Education, 298
"Ms." (honorific), 44
Muller v. Oregon case (1908), 186
Munsterberg, Hugo: *History of Women Artists, A*, 240
Murray, Elizabeth, 243
"Murder, She Wrote" (television program), 234
"Murphy Brown" (television program), 232
Museum of Modern Art, New York, 246
museums and galleries
  National Museum of Women in the Arts (NMWA), 29, 247, *248*
  women artists' work in, 29, 246–47
  women as directors of, 29; galleries, 239
"My Sister Sam" (television program), 232, 233, 234

NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund, 92
Nairobi conference, *see* World Conference on Women (Nairobi, 1985)
National Association of Intercollegiate Athletes (NAIA), 45
National Association of State Boards of Education, 140
National Association of Women's Centers, 277
National Center for Policy Alternatives, Washington, D.C. Women's Economic Justice Center, 281
  Policy Choices in Family and Medical Leave, 281
National Committee on Pay Equity, 37

National Council for Research on Women, 317
National Council of Negro Women (NCNW), 280, 296
National Council of State Legislators, 140
National Endowment for the Humanities, 317
National Family Planning and Reproductive Health Association, 35
National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, 283
National Governors' Association: *Focus on the First 60 Months,* 140
National Guard, women in, 49
National Low Income Housing Coalition. Women and Housing Task Force, 129
National Low Income Housing Preservation Commission, 123
National Merit Scholarships, 63
National Museum of Women in the Arts (NMWA), Washington, D.C., 29, 247, 248
National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), 55
National Organization for Women (NOW), 43, 280
"National Plan of Action for Women" (1977), 275, 276, 278, 279, 281, 282, 286
National Research Council (NRC), 54
National Women's Conference (Houston, 1977), 275, 278
  Plan of Action, 275, 276, 278, 279, 281, 282, 286
National Women's Conference Committee (NWCC), 279–80
  Decade of Achievement: 1977–1987, 276–77
National Women's Law Center, 41, 53
National Women's Party, 291
National Women's Political Causus, 44, 56, 284
National Women's Studies Association (NWSA), 318
Native American women, *see* American Indian women
Natividad, Irene, 263
Nemser, Cindy: *Art Talk,* 240
networking, *see* organizations, women's: alliances and networking
never-married women, 351, *table* 368–69
  and childbearing, 352, *table* 370
  with children, *see* mothers, single
  sexual activity of, 45
  see also single women
Newman, Constance Berry, 53
New Schools Demonstration Act, 163
New York State Club Association, Inc. v. City of New York case (1988), 41–42, 185
Nobel Prize for Medicine (1988), 48
Nochlin, Linda: "Why Have There Been No Great Women Artists?", 238
North East Resistance Society, 302
nursing profession
  chronic care workers, 332–33
  and hospital staff shortages, 51
  pay scales, 51, 60, 332
  women as percent in, *table* 384

Oakar, Mary Rose, 337
occupational advancement, *see* promotions and career advancement
occupational distribution, statistics, 357, 383
  by industry, by sex, 358, 385
  of women, 176
occupations
  choice of, *see* career choices
  male-dominated, *see* male-dominated occupations and worksites
  selected, women as percent of all workers in, 358, *table* 384
  see also female occupations; professions; workforce, women in; *and specific occupations*
O'Connor, Sandra Day, 65
Office of Child Support Enforcement (OCSE), 48
officials, elected, *see* elected women
O'Keeffe, Georgia, 243, 247
Older Americans Act, Demonstration Grants Program, 333
older women
  earnings, 361, *table* 391
  handicapped, 350–51, *tables* 367
  homeowners, *table* 99, 100, *table* 101
  income (median), 393
  in labor force, 355, 377
  legislation for, 336
  and osteoporosis, 343
  renters, 95, *table* 99, 100–101 and *table,* 102
Older Women's League (OWL), 13, 56, 285
Oliveros, Gilda, 58, 255
Olympic Games (Seoul, Korea, 1988), 45
Organization of Chinese American Women, 263
Organization of Pan Asian Women, 264
organizations, women's

- organizations *(continued)*
  - alliances and networking, 22–23, 278–80, 284, 285, 289, 304, 306, 309–10; Council of Presidents coordinates, 23, 281–86
  - of Asian and Pacific American women, 263
  - in art, 245–48
  - non-governmental (NGOs), 273–74
  - and peace movement, 303, 304–10; list, 310–14
  - *see also specific organizations*
- osteoporosis, 343
- out-of-wedlock childbearing, *see* unmarried mothers
- Overseas Education Fund, 296

- Pacific-American women, 27, 258–64
  - diversity of, 259–60
  - educational attainment, 260
  - labor force participation, 260–61
  - organizations (national), 263
  - *see also* Filipino-American women; Samoan-American women
- Palmer, Phyllis, 320
- *Palmer v. Shultz* case (1987), 61
- Parental and Temporary Medical Leave Act (1988), 47
- parental leave, 136, 166, 172, 186
  - federal legislation, 47, 329, 334, 335, 337
  - *see also* leave for family caregiving; pregnancy disability leave
- partnerships, domestic (legal recognition), 55–56, 65
- Part-Time and Temporary Workers Protection Act, 341–42
- part-time work, 356, *table* 378
  - involuntary, 176, 208–9
  - lack of meaningful jobs, 186, 188
  - legislative support for, 341–42
  - by mothers of small children, 138, 149, 205, *table* 379
  - number of workers in, 203–4
  - professional, 205
  - *see also* contingent work
- part-year employment, *see* contingent work; temporary work
- Patterson, Elizabeth J., 337–38
- Paul, Alice, 291
- pay equity, 170, 171–72, 172–73, 174, 175, 192–99, 281
  - cost of, 196
  - criticism of, 195–97
  - for federal employees, 46
  - federal legislation, 47, 282, 283, 329, 336, 337
  - for state employees, 361, *table* 392
  - *see also* wage gap
- Pay Equity Technical Assistance Act, 337
- Peace Links, 310, 311
- peace movement, 11, 24, 301–14
  - development of women's role, 302–4
  - lobbying activities, 307
  - radical feminists and, 306, 308
  - social justice and, 302, 304–5, 306, 307, 308–9
  - women's rights agenda of, 308–9, 310
- *Peace Resource Book* (1988–89), 305, 306
- Pelosi, Nancy, 338
- pension benefits, 42, 51–52
  - for contingent workers, 206, 207, 210, 341
  - women's access to, 175, 336
- Percy, Charles, 295
- Pereira, Irene Rice, 239
- Perry Preschool Project, 139–40
- Persinger, Mildred, 293
- Petersen, Karen: *Women Artists*, 240
- Pethick-Lawrence, Emmeline, 303
- physicians, *see* doctors, women
- pilots, women, 358, *table* 384
- Planned Parenthood Federation of America, 35
- police work, women in, 358, *table* 384
- policy, public
  - on abortion, 34–35, 36
  - and American Indians, 266, 272
  - on child care, *see* child care: federal legislation and policy
  - on contingent workers' rights and benefits, 210–11
  - on housing, 31–32, 121–27
  - on occupational discrimination, 199–200
  - women's organizations and, 22, 278–86
- poor
  - American Indian women, 26, 266, 272
  - blacks as, 72, 73, 74, 77, 83–84; *see also* children, black: poor . . .
  - child care as intervention for, 132, 139, 148, 149
  - children, *see* children: poor; children, black: poor . . .
  - elderly single female renters as, 95, 101 and *table,* 102
  - by family type and race, 363, *table* 396
  - female-headed families, 12, 26, 102, 103 and *table,* 104, 363, *tables* 396–97; American Indian, 266; black, 12, 72, 77, 81 and *table,* 82, 94
  - Hispanic women and families, 26, 251–52
  - by household type, *table* 101, 102, 103 and *table,* 104

  income of, *vs.* richest, 59–60
  women, and housing crisis, 97–98
Population Crisis Council, 42
population statistics (U.S.)
  abortion ratios, by age, race, marital status, 352–53, *table* 371
  birth rates, women aged 20–24, by race, 352, *table* 370
  children's living arrangements, by race, 354, *table* 374
  earnings, *see* earnings . . .
  family types, 353–54, *tables* 372–74; labor force status, and presence of children, 354, *table* 374
  female, by age and race, 349–50, *table* 365
  income, by age and sex, 361–62, 393
  income sources (selected), by sex and race, 362–63, *table* 395
  labor force participation: by educational attainment, 355–56, *table* 377; by family type, 354, *table* 374; industry distribution, by sex, 358, 385; reasons for lack of, by sex, 357, 382; occupational distribution, by sex, 357, 383; occupations (selected), women as percent of all workers, 358, *table* 384; part-time and full-time work of women, by age, 356, *table* 378; scientists and engineers, women as, 358–59, *table* 386; by sex and race, 355, *table* 376; unemployment rates, by sex, race, Hispanic origin, 356–57, *table* 381; of women, by age, 355, 377; of women with young children, 356, *table* 379
  marital status, by sex and race, 351, *table* 368; and childbearing, by age, 352, *table* 370
  poverty rates, by family type and race, 363, *table* 396
  by race and sex, 72, 75, 349, 364
poverty, *see* poor
pregnancy disability leave, 14, 63; *see also* leave for family caregiving
Pregnancy Discrimination Act, 14
prenatal care, 328, 331, 334
  for black teenagers, 86
Price Waterhouse v. Hopkins case (1989), 62
Princeton University, Princeton, N.J., 320
professions
  "devalued" by women's participation in, 28
  gender stratification, 174, 176–77, 218–20
  men *vs.* women in, 357, 383
  part-time employment, 205
  see also specific professions
Project for the Arts, Washington, D.C., 247
promotions and career advancement
  companies' exemplary efforts, 36
  in Dept. of Agriculture, 38
  limited, for many women, 22, 170, 171, 176, 179, 181, 182, 187
Provident Bank of Connecticut, 210
Pryor, David, 52
PTA (national), 141
public assistance programs
  as source of income, by sex and race, *table* 395
  see also Aid to Families with Dependent Children; food stamps; welfare programs . . .
public housing, 114
  child care services in, 35, 329, 332
  female-headed families in, by race, 354, 375
public policy, *see* policy, public
public schools, *see* schools, public
Puerto Rican-origin Americans, 249–50
  poverty rate, 252
Puerto Rican-origin women
  age distribution, *table* 365
  in labor force, 253

racism, 74–75, 93
Rape Crisis Center(s), 277
rape victims, publication of names, 67
Raven, Arlene, 239
Reagan, Maureen, 298
Reagan administration, 285
  and abortion, 34–35
  and civil rights, 36
  judicial nominations, 35
  and subsidized housing, 119, 121
  and women's rights, 22, 274, 279
"refuseniks," women, 336–37
Rehnquist, William, 68
remarriage, in black community, 73, 79, 80, 82
rented housing
  affordable, supply of, 124
  cost, as percent of income, 95, 108, 109 and *table*, 111–12
  economic status of renters, 94, 101, *table* 103; elderly single females, 95
  federally assisted units, 95, 96, 113–17
  female-headed families in, 94, 100, 354, 375
  jeopardy of renters, 105
  as percent of households, 99 and *table*, 100
reporters and editors, women, 358, *table* 384

reproductive health issues
  abortion, *see* abortion rights
  federal legislation, 282, 283, 285, 331
  and sex discrimination in workplace, 47, 50
  see also contraceptive methods and devices; fertility
Republican party, 34
Rhode, Deborah, 30–31
Richey, Charles, 33
Roberts v. United States Jaycees case (1984), 185
Rockefeller Foundation, 296
Roe v. Wade case (1973), 16, 62, 68, 335
"Roseanne" (television program), 232
Rubinstein, Charlotte S.: *American Women Artists,* 240
Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N.J., 318, 322

Saiki, Patricia, 263, 338–39
St. Patrick's Day parade, New York City (1989), 58, 59
Samoan-American women, 260, 261; *see also* Pacific-American women
San Diego State University, 316
SANE/FREEZE, 306
savings and loan industry, 338–39
Schapiro, Miriam, 239
Schneider, Claudine, 312, 339–41
scholars, women
  art critics and historians, 239, 240–45
  in women's studies, 24–26, 315–24
  see also academic jobs and careers
Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), 56
  Preliminary test (PSAT), 63
Schomberg Library of Nineteenth-Century Black Women Writers, The, 38
schools, public
  and black males, 88, 89
  and child care programs, 136, 156, 158, 162–65, 169, 336, 400
  sexual stereotyping in, 63
  women as administrators, 33
  see also high schools
Schroeder, Patricia, 210, 325, 326, 341–42
Schwartz, Felice N., 58, 59
Schwimmer, Rosika, 303
science and mathematics
  employment sectors for women (by racial/ethnic group) and all men, 359, *table* 386
  women's education and careers in, 55, 199, 340–41
  women's GPAs in, in medical school, 215
  women as percent of those employed in, 358–59, *table* 386
segregation by gender, in workforce, 22, 30, 170, 174, 176, 182–83
  stratification, 30, 170, 174, 176
  in television industry, 231–37
  see also female occupations; male–dominated occupations; occupational distribution, statistics
Seifert, Carolyn, 242
self-employment, 204, 207; *see also* businesses, women-owned
Seneca Falls (N.Y.) women's rights meeting (1848), 275, 288
separation, marital
  black women, 80, 85
  sons as deterrent to, 34
  see also divorce; homemakers, displaced
sex discrimination
  in academic testing, 56, 63
  in Boy Scouting, 35
  in private clubs, 41–42
sex discrimination, in workplace, 15–16, 22, 43, 65–66, 170–200
  access to networks of support and information, 172, 184–85
  and black women, 82
  in Chicago police department, 37
  civil servants and, 37
  in Forest Service, 39
  at Harris Bank, Chicago, 53
  hearings on (congressional), 37
  and House of Representatives employees, 46
  laws on, 170, 173–74, 175, 188–89, 199
  in military service, 35
  reproductive health as reason for excluding females, 47, 50
  turnover rates, men's *vs.* women's, 400
  at USIA, 33
  see also segregation by gender, in workforce
sex ratio, among blacks, 72, 78, 79–80 and *tables*
sexual harassment, *see* harassment, sexual
Sheffield, Jill, 296–97
Sherman, Julia, ed.: *Prism of Sex, The,* 323
Shields, Laurie, 56–57
SIGNS (periodical), 318
single women
  abortion ratios, 353, *table* 371
  with children, *see* mothers, single
  housing type: homeowners, *table* 99, 100; by race and Hispanic origin, *table* 99, 100; renters, 95, 100–101, 102
  see also never-married women

Slaughter, Louise M., 342
Smart Start program, 153
Snipp, C. Matthew, 26
Snowe, Olympia J., 325, 326, 343
Snyder, Margaret, 293
Social Services Block Grant program, and child care, 151, 161, 165
Soho 20, New York, 246
Somers, Tish, 56
South American-origin women, *see* Central and South American women
Sparrow, W. S.: *Women Painters of the World,* 238
Spelman College, Atlanta, Ga., 49
Spender, Dale: *Men's Studies Modified,* 323
sports, women participants, 41, 45, 50
Stanford University, Palo Alto, Calif., 317, 322–23
Stanton, Elizabeth Cady, 288, 289, 290–91
Stapleton, Jean, 25
state legislators, women, 359, *table* 387
states
  and abortion regulation, 16, 67–68
  and child care, 67, 135, 145–46, 154–56; resource and referral programs, 160–62, 169
  commissions on women, 278, 280
  and early childhood education, 157–60
  employees of, and pay equity, 361, *table* 392
  and housing assistance, 127
  legislation on issues in National Plan of Action, 280–81
  women cabinet officers, 56
status of women (worldwide)
  and economic development, 298–99
  and poverty, 287
  as priority issue, 296
  U.S. ranking, 42, 287
Steinberg, Joel, 328
Stern, William, 35
Stone, Anne, 31–32
stratification of jobs, *see* segregation by gender, in workforce
Strauss, Annette, 64
students, *see* college students; education; higher education; high schools; schools, public
Supreme Court, *see* U.S. Supreme Court
surrogacy parenthood, 35

Tax Reform Act (1986), 51, 210–11
teaching profession
  blacks in, 92
  women as percent in *table* 384
teenagers, pregnant
  black, 84–87 *passim*
  and schooling, 63, 86–87, 156
  support services, and earnings, 47
Teitelbaum, Herbert I., 44
television industry, women in, 231–37
  directors, 233
  producers, 231–33
  writers, 233–34
Temple University, Philadelphia, 41
temporary work, 203–4
  professional, 205
  see also contingent work
Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA), 55
Testa, Mark, 86
Texas: women mayors in, 64
Thompson, Karen, 55–56
Tinker, Irene, 295
  (ed.): *Women and World Development,* 293
Title VII, *see* Civil Rights Act (1964), Title VII
Title IX, *see* Education Amendments of 1972, Title IX
Tony Awards, 65
Trickle-Up program, 298
Truman, Harry S, 38
Tufts, Eleanor: *Our Hidden Heritage,* 240

unemployment
  among blacks, 76, 268; effect on marriage rate, 85; and underemployment, for women, 91
  among minority women, 175; American Indian, 268, 270–71, 272; Hispanic, 253, 357, *table* 381
  of mothers, and child care, 149
  by sex, race and Hispanic origin, 356–57, *table* 381
  see also part-time work: involuntary
UNIFEM, 293
Uniformed Services Former Spouses Protection Act, 65
unions, and child care, 140
United Methodist Church, 39
U.N. Commission on the Status of Women, 273, 291
U.N. Conference of International Women's Year (Mexico City, 1975), 292–93
U.N. Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979), 276, 292, 297
U.N. Decade for Women (1976–85), 23, 273, 275–76, 289, 290, 291, 292
U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), 40

U.S. (Dept. of) Agriculture, 38
U.S. Air Force, 36–37
  women in, 359, *table* 388
U.S. Army (women in), 49 *table* 388
U.S. Congress
  (100th), legislative agenda, 47, 48, 132, 145, 151, 153, 282–83, 285
  (101st), legislative agenda, 15, 145, 185–86, 236–44
  employees of: job protection, 39–40; sex discrimination, 46
  women elected to, 11, 52, 60, 359, *table* 387
——— House of Representatives
  employees of: fair employment policy, 46; family and medical leave, 62
  women elected to, 60
——— Senate: first black woman staff director of committee, 52
U.S. Constitution
  1st Amendment, 41, 67
  14th Amendment, 188
U.S. Farmers Home Administration, 114
U.S. Foreign Service, 61
U.S. Forest Service, 39
U.S. General Accounting Office: reports on low-income housing, 116–17
U.S. (Dept. of) Housing and Urban Development, 114
U.S. Information Agency (USIA), 33
U.S. Marine Corps, 44
  women in, 359, *table* 388
U.S. Navy, 40
  women in, *table* 388
U.S. Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), 45–46
U.S. Small Business Administration, 49, 54
U.S. State Dept., 43, 61
U.S. Supreme Court, 15–16, 34
  on abortion, 16, 61–62, 67–68, 335
  on Adolescent Family Life Act, 42
  of affirmative action, 52, 66
  on child-support delinquency, 39
  on employment discrimination, 43, 62, 65–66, 186
  on publication of rape victims' names, 67–68
  on sex and race discrimination in private clubs, 41–42
  on sex bias in pension benefits, 42
  on veterans' disability benefits and divorced spouse, 65
Universal Peace Union, 302
universities and colleges, *see* higher education; *and specific institutions*
University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn., 37–38
University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kans., 25, 316
University of Southern California, Los Angeles, 318
University of Washington, Seattle, 25, 316
unmarried-couple households
  with children, 352, *table* 371
  legal recognition, 65
unmarried mothers, 352, *table* 370
  black, 84–87
  likelihood of marriage to father of their child(ren), 54, 85
  see also mothers, single
unmarried women, *see* single women
Unsoeld, Jolene, 52, 344

Valdon, Suzanne, 239
Varo, Remedius, 243
Vaught, Gen. Wilma L., 50
veterans' disability benefits, 65
veterans, female, 50, 51
video display terminals (VDTs), health hazards of, 53–54
Vietnamese-American women, 260; *see also* Asian-American women
Vietnam Women's Memorial Project, 50
vocational training, *see* job training and education
voting patterns (1988), by sex, 42, 49–50, 53, 284

wage gap, 11, 172–73, 175, 360–61, 362, 390, 391, *table* 391, *table* 392, 393
  in academic jobs, 37–38
  civil servants and, 37
  for college graduates, 175–76, 361, *table* 392
  see also pay equity
wages, *see* earnings; pay equity
Wald, Lillian, 303
Walker, John M., 56
Walsh, Michaela, 293
Wards Cove Packing Co. v. Antonio case (1989), 16, 65–66
War Resisters League, 306, 307, 308
Washington, D.C., women's rights march (Apr. 1989), 60–61
Wasserman, Wendy: *Heidi Chronicles*, 65
Watson v. Fort Worth [Texas] Bank & Trust case (1988), 43
Webster v. Reproductive Health Services case (1989), 16, 61–62, 67–68
Weddington, Sarah, 292

welfare programs, policies and payments
  dependency on, and child care, 135, 148–48, 150
  housing discrimination against recipients, 95, 105, 125
  reform of, 47–48, 281, 283, 333–34
  and young mothers, support services and earnings, 467
  see also Aid to Families with Dependent Children
Wellesley College, Wellesley, Mass. Center for Research on Women, 317, 321–22
Wheaton College, Norton, Mass., 322
Whited, Charles, 12
Whitehead-Gould, Mary Beth, 35
white women and black women, *see* black women and white women, compared
Whitmire, Kathy, 64
Whitney Museum of Art, New York, 246
"Who's the Boss" (television program), 234
widows, 351; *table* 368
  black: homeowners, 100; single mothers, 85; and widowers, compared, 80 and *table*
  see also homemakers, displaced; remarriage
wives, *see* married women
Wilson, J. J.: *Women Artists*, 240
Wingspread Foundation, Racine, Wis., 296–97
WIN News (periodical), 293–94
Wisconsin Women's Network, 279
Wolvowitz, Barbara, 44
Womanart (periodical), 241
Woman's Art Journal (periodical), 243, 244–45, 248
Woman's Peace Party, 303–4
Women Artists in Revolution, 246
Women Artists News (periodical), 244
Women Employed, Chicago, 53
Women for a Meaningful Summit (WMS), 309, 311–12
Women in Baseball exhibition (Baseball Hall of Fame), 49
women in development (WID) program, 23, 40, 295
  Association for, 298
  donor network, 295–96
Women in Military Service for America Memorial Foundation, Inc., 50
women of color, *see* American Indian women; Asian-American women; black women; Hispanic women; minority women; Pacific-American women
Women's Action for Nuclear Disarmament (WAND), 306, 307, 309, 312
Women's Agenda, 22, 283–84
Women's Agenda Conference
  (1988, Des Moines), 33–34, 283–84
  (1989, Kansas City), 53
Women's Business Ownership Act (1988), 49, 329
Women's Caucus for Art, 245, 247
Women's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU), 302–3
Women's Educational Equity Act program, 317
Women's Encampment for a Future of Peace and Justice, 309, 312
Women's Interart Center, New York, 246
Women's International League for Peace and Freedom (WILPF), 304, 306, 307, 309, 313
  racial justice campaign, 308
  Washington State branch (1922), 305
  Women's Budget, The, 307–8
women's movement, international, 22
  American feminism and, 22, 23–24, 275–76, 288–91, 298
  networking and alliances, 289–90, 296, 298
  publications, 293–94
women's movement, U.S., 273–86
  agenda and priorities, 15, 275, 279–86
  history, 275, 288
  and international movement, 22, 23–24, 275–76, 288–91, 298
  networking and alliances, 22–23, 278–86, 289, 304, 306, 309–10
  racial analysis of, 281–82
Women's Peace Initiative (WPI), 308, 313
Women's Peace Party, 24
Women's Pentagon Action, 308
Women's Research and Education Institute (WREI), 17, 67, 425–26
Women's Sports Foundation, 41
Women's Studies (periodical), 318
women's studies programs, 24–26, 190, 315–24
  degrees awarded, 318–19
  impact on other curricula, 319–23
  journals and textbooks, 318
  research centers, 24, 315, 317
Women Strike for Peace (WSP), 309, 313–14
Women's Voluntary Fund, 293
Women's Vote Project, 283
Women's World Banking, 293
Worcester, Noah, 302
workforce, women in, 355, *table* 376
  by age, 355, 377
  American Indian, 266–72

workforce *(continued)*
- Asian Pacific American women, 260–61
- black heads of families, 82
- feminist scholars on, 323–24
- gender-equality issues, 170–200; *see also* segregation by gender, in workforce; sex discrimination, in workplace
- Hispanic, 27, 252–56
- and homemaking, *see* homemaking
- increased participation, 12–13, 335, 355
- mothers, 138, 356, *table* 379; black and white women, compared, 138; child care for, *see* child care; divorced women, 138; entrepreneurs, 223–24; income, *see* earnings, women's; and part-time work, 138, 149, 205, *table* 379; poor women, 138–39; pressures on, 13–14
- by sex and race, 355, *table* 376
- *see also* contingent work; employment outside home; part-time work

World Anti-Slavery Congress (1840), 290
World Bank: Safe Motherhood Initiative, 298
World Conference on Women (Copenhagen, 1980), 295–96
World Conference on Women (Nairobi, 1985), 287, 289, 290, 297–300
- preparatory conferences, 296–97

_____ Nongovernmental Organizations Forum, 297
writing skills, girls' *vs.* boys', 63

Yard, Molly, 43
YWCA (national), 285

Zwilich, Ellen Taafe: "Symbolom," 40–41

About the Editor

Sara E. Rix is director of research at the Women's Research and Education Institute (WREI), where she specializes in policy research and analysis. Her primary research interests are employment policy, retirement policy, and the economics of aging. She holds a Ph.D. from the University of Virginia.

Dr. Rix is chair of the research, education, and practice committee of the Gerontological Society of America, a member of the board of directors of the National Center on Women and Retirement Research, and a member of the American Sociological Association's ad hoc committee on federal standards for the employment of sociologists. She is, or has been, an adviser on or consultant to projects of the General Accounting Office, Working Women, the Office of Technology Assessment, the National Senior Citizens Education and Research Center, the National Council for Alternative Work Patterns, and the 1981 White House Conference on Aging.

Dr. Rix has studied, written on, and spoken about the work and retirement income needs of middle-aged and older women and men for over 10 years. She is the coauthor of *The Graying of Working America* (with Harold L. Sheppard) and of *Retirement-Age Policy: An International Perspective* (with Paul Fisher). Before she came to WREI, she was a research scientist at the American Institutes for Research.

Prepared by the Women's Research and Education Institute (WREI), this is the third in *The American Woman* series of reports documenting the current social, economic, and political status of American women. Written in a succinct and readable style by specialists in the field, it examines such topics as women in the labor force, women and the family, women in the political process, women of color, women in the arts, business, and medicine. Tables and charts in the statistical appendix draw a clear picture of who America's women are, where and how they are living, what they are doing, and how much they are earning.

For those who want to understand the facts and trends affecting all women today, this book is *the* authoritative source of current information.

Praise for *The American Woman* series

"This book should be on the desk of every person and policy-maker interested in the status of women today."
—the Honorable Barbara Mikulski, U.S. Senate

"*The American Woman* is a landmark achievement.... Here is a sound basis of current facts and trends that will counter the new mystiques of anti- and neo-feminism."
—Betty Friedan

"A great resource! Why didn't anyone think of this sooner?"
—Studs Terkel

"Teeming with facts based on extensive research, it gives a good picture of where the nation is and makes suggestions for framing future policies. It's an essential guide for those interested in this area."
—*Kirkus Reviews*

"A remarkably clear and concise reference tool."—*Los Angeles Times*

SARA E. RIX is director of research at WREI, where she specializes in policy research and analysis. She holds a Ph.D. from the University of Virginia and is coauthor of *The Graying of Working America* (with Harold L. Sheppard) and of *Retirement-Age Policy: International Perspective* (with Paul Fisher), and editor of *The American Woman* series.

Cover design by Karl Steinbrenner

ISBN 0-393-30686-0

W · W · NORTON
NEW YORK · LONDON

51095

9 780393 306866

FPT $10.95 USA $14.95 CAN.